

# Contemporary Psychology

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- Page 177 **American Handbook of Psychiatry**, by Silvano Arieti  
(Ed.)  
*Reviewed by B. B. WOLMAN*
- 179 **Man's Way: A Preface to the Understanding of Human Society**, by Walter Goldschmidt  
*Reviewed by I. D. STEINER*
- 180 **The Practice of Successful Advertising**, by L. R. Coleman  
*Reviewed by J. V. McCONNELL*
- 181 **Psychology and Human Performance: An Introduction to Psychology**, by R. M. Gagné and E. A. Fleishman  
**Psychology in Theory and Practice**, by T. A. Ringness, H. J. Klausmeier, and A. J. Singer, Jr.  
*Reviewed by G. E. BRIGGS*
- 182 **The Security of Infants**, by Betty M. Flint  
*Reviewed by JUDY F. ROSENBLITH*
- 183 **Political Socialization: A Study in the Psychology of Political Behavior**, by H. H. Hyman  
*Reviewed by S. L. SHARMA*
- 184 **The Motivation, Productivity, and Satisfaction of Workers: A Prediction Study**, by A. Zalesnik, C. R. Christensen, and F. J. Roethlisberger, with G. C. Homans  
*Reviewed by F. C. MANN*
- 185 **Educational Psychology**, by G. G. Thompson, E. F. Gardner, and F. J. Di Vesta  
*Reviewed by N. L. GAGE*
- 187 **CP SPEAKS**  
By the Editor
- 188 **Jump Book**, by Philippe Halaman  
*Reviewed by W. A. HUNT*

(Continued on inside cover)

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#### CONTENTS—continued

- 190 **Introduction to Exceptional Children**, by H. J. Baker  
**Management of the Handicapped Child: Diagnosis, Treatment and Rehabilitation**, by H. Michal-Smith (Ed.)  
**The Cerebral-Palsied Child: A Guide for Parents**, by W. M. Phelps, T. W. Hopkins, and Robert Cousins  
*Reviewed by* MARK STEPHENS
- 192 **Person Perception and Interpersonal Behavior**, by Renato Tagiuri and Luigi Petrullo (Eds.)  
*Reviewed by* H. C. KELMAN
- 195 **Child Behavior and Development**, by W. E. Martin and Celia B. Stendler  
**Child Development**, by W. C. Olson  
*Reviewed by* ALBERTA E. SIEGEL
- 196 **The Testing of Negro Intelligence**, by Audrey M. Shuey  
*Reviewed by* R. K. WILLIAMS
- 197 **Estimation of Time: An Experimental Study**, by Marianne Frankenhäuser  
*Reviewed by* MARIANNE L. SIMMEL
- 198 **Religious Behavior**, by Michael Argyle  
**Psychology of Religion**, by P. E. Johnson  
*Reviewed by* J. E. DITTES
- 200 **Adolescent Rorschach Responses: Development Trends from Ten to Sixteen Years**, by Louise B. Ames, Ruth W. Métraux, and R. N. Walker  
**Rorschach Responses of Elementary School Children: A Normative Study**, by Nettie H. Ledwith  
*Reviewed by* I. J. KNOPE
- 202 **Observation and Analysis in Child Development: A Laboratory Manual**, by J. R. Suchman  
*Reviewed by* PAUL MUSSEN
- 203 **Modern Statistical Methods: Descriptive and Inductive**, by P. O. Johnson and R. W. B. Jackson  
*Reviewed by* W. B. MICHAEL
- 204 **ON THE OTHER HAND**
- 206 **INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA**  
Edited by A. A. LUMSDAINE  
Film Review by WILLIAM ETKIN  
Current Publications on Teaching Machines and Self-Instructional Materials  
Recent Films
- 208 **List of Books Received**

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# Contemporary Psychology

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## Psychiatry Today

Silvano Arieti (Ed.)

*American Handbook of Psychiatry*. 2 vols. New York: Basic Books, 1959.  
Pp. xxii + 1000; xii + 1001-2098. \$25.00.

Reviewed by BENJAMIN B. WOLMAN

*Dr. Wolman, with a PhD from Warsaw and some years of academic experience in Israel, has been since 1949 teaching in New York at Teachers College, Columbia University, and CCNY. Professor Wolman is now on the faculties of Queens College and Albert Einstein College of Medicine in Yeshiva University, while also in private psychoanalytic practice. Harper is likely to have published his Contemporary Theories and Systems in Psychology before this review appears. He has a monograph on Schizophrenia in press and a text on Abnormal Psychology in preparation.*

IN sheer physical dimensions Dr. Arieti's *Handbook* is a most impressive work. The huge two volumes, over 1,000 pages each, are divided into 15 parts and 100 chapters written by 111 experts, among them 8 psychologists, and edited by 6 editors. The 15 parts can be grouped into five larger units dealing with introductory problems (part 1), clinical syndromes (parts 2-8), therapeutic methods (parts 9-11), the relation between psychiatry and other fields, among them clinical and social psychology (parts 12, 13) and finally management, legal, and social aspects of psychiatry (parts 14, 15).

The quantity of the *Handbook* is well matched by its quality. The papers are well documented, comprehensive, and authoritative. The 111 experts covered the entire field of what is known today in the etiology, theory, and treatment of mental disorders.

The preparation of a work of such a caliber required a great deal of planning. The editor of the *Handbook*, Dr. Silvano Arieti, the author of an excellent monograph on schizophrenia (1955), did not spare effort to make the work as representative and complete as possible. Arieti himself has been influenced by the Sullivanian point of view, but the associate editors, K. E. Appel, D. Blain, N. Cameron, K. Goldstein, and I. C. Kolb, are representative of diversity in unity. As Arieti says in his preface, "the orientation of the editor and the editorial board was toward completeness, representation of all points of view, and reliability, rather than uniformity or consistency."

The editors tried to keep the balance between the various approaches. The authors of the respective chapters enjoyed considerable freedom, expressing their own views and not necessarily those of the editors. Each author, said Dr. Arieti, "was free to express his per-

sonal point of view," but was asked to present alternative conceptions. Arieti's *Handbook*, as compared to Stevens' *Handbook of Experimental Psychology* (1951), is more liberal in respect of the diversity of opinions and less uniform in the organization and presentation of research data and theory.

The liberal policy of the editor enabled him to bring together under this common roof experts whose opinions contradict each other. Whether one likes it or not, such is the present status in psychiatry.

THIS liberal policy seems to the reviewer the only way in which such a *Handbook* could be prepared. Nevertheless, this contrast of opinions between the organic and psychogenic points of view, between the Freudian, non-Freudian, and neo-Freudian psychological theories, between the physicochemical, psychological, and sociological approaches to therapy could and should be explained. One could explain the differences in a historical manner, as Boring did in his classic work (1950) or in a systematic way as Wolman did in his recent work (1960). Unfortunately Arieti's *Handbook* does not include such a historical or systematic explanation of the lack of unity in the present day psychiatry. The excellent chapters on history of American psychiatry (N. C. Lewis and B. Mora) offer a detailed and interesting description but do not explain *why* psychiatrists today disagree with each other.

Psychiatry started with the recognition of fact that the 'insane,' 'crazy,'

'lunatic,' or 'possessed' ones are *sick* individuals. With this recognition, flogging and other punishment methods stopped, and research into the sick organism started. The *Handbook* gives an impressive picture of the research in etiology and symptomatology of mental disorder, reminding all of us that human beings are organisms, part of living matter, and subject to the laws of physical and biochemical processes. Anatomy, histology, and physiology of the nervous and glandular systems form an indispensable and fundamental part of the study of human nature. Psychiatrists and psychologists cannot help wondering how the somatopsychic and psychosomatic transformations take place, but that they do take place no one can deny.

The soma-psyche dichotomy occupies a significant part in several papers of the *Handbook*. Freud taught us to study mental phenomena, normal and deviant, independently of their organic foundations, but Freud himself never gave up hope and assumed that "in mental life some kind of energy is at work" (1949, p. 44). From the start he was biologically oriented and he marveled at the "mysterious leap" from mind to body and postulated the unity of the living matter (Wolman, 1960, Ch. 6).

**M**ORE recent studies of parent-child relationship (Horney, Sullivan, Anna Freud, Erikson, Moreno, Wolman, Ackerman, Lidz, Escalona, and many others) have opened new horizons and raised new problems. It is no more 'organism vs. personality;' rather it is organism, personality, and society. So the opinions regarding the nature and treatment of mental disorder have become more diversified than ever.

And yet, despite this apparent discrepancy in opinions, there is a noticeable and slowly growing tendency toward development of a general theory that would include the body, the person, and the human group. This tendency is reflected in the recent works of several authors, such as Ackerman, Alexander, Arieti, Halliday, Lidz, Ruesch, Stainbrook, Wolman and many others. The impact of this converging tendency is felt throughout the *Handbook*.

One of the best exponents of this tendency, E. Stainbrook, presents his point in a convincing manner. In the beginning of our century theories of personality structure and psychophysiology were introduced into medicine. More recently, writes Dr. Stainbrook, "the acceptance within medicine of the sciences of sociology and anthropology has provided the conceptual methods for making correlative statements in the



—Fabian Bachrach

SILVANO ARIETI

theoretical languages of biology, personality, and society about events in the life process" (p. 151).

Stainbrook has reviewed the numerous studies in social psychiatry and pointed to the relative and culturally determined 'sick role' of a mental patient. The understanding of the interaction between the individual and his group and of the impact of the cultural values upon the disease may prove priceless for the future progress of therapy—for, says Stainbrook, whatever the hope the molecular biology may bring, "psychiatry will always have to deal with man as individual and social man."

Even the authors of the excellent 14 chapters that describe the organic disorders could not overlook the human and social aspects in their field. These 14 chapters, profusely illustrated and exceedingly rich in research reports, did not omit the psychological and cultural aspects. All organic mental disorders cause disruption or disturbance in mental functions, and the mental symptoms such as pains, anxieties, disturbances in

thinking and speech are of great diagnostic value. Brain injuries lead to intellectual and social deterioration (p. 1184) and several studies have shown that "in a large proportion of cases the brain damage is of primary importance in determining the nature of the post-traumatic state" (p. 1190).

Mental deficiencies (Jervis, Ch. 63) are either 'pathologic' (caused by organic factors) or 'physiological.' Physiological mental deficiency includes all cases in which no pathological condition of brain has been discovered. Jervis called this physiological mental deficiency "acultural subcultural," because most of these cases originate from an environment of low cultural level. This classification, the reviewer believes, creates an unnecessary confusion, for whatever the cultural background be, some individuals must still be found on the lowest end of the distribution. Unfortunately, this authoritative chapter did not discuss the cases of pseudodeficiency, caused by emotional disturbances, nor cultural and educational retardation.

The psychoneuroses, functional psychoses, and psychopathic conditions are described in great detail in 21 chapters. The distribution of material is somewhat inconclusive, bearing witness to the lack of clarity in the present-day classification of mental disorder. One of the authors, G. Chrzanowski, wrote that "from an operational point of view, 'neurasthenia' and 'hypochondriasis' are awkward, antiquated pieces of furniture, not much good for anything" (p. 259). Up to this point the reviewer agrees with the author. But then Dr. Chrzanowski believes that both terms "seem to be here to stay." Why? asks the reviewer. Dr. Chrzanowski maintains that the two are a "single syndrome." Surely the clinical evidence is to the contrary. Hypochondriac symptoms can be associated with numerous types of disorder. Hypochondriasis is not a clinical entity; it is a name of a symptom. Now one wonders whether neurasthenia denotes today anything at all; it is completely omitted in the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders* of the American Psychiatric Association (1952).



An effort toward integration is clearly seen in the chapters on *Manic-Depressive Psychosis* and on *Schizophrenia* (Arieti), chapters which give us a glimpse of what may be the future development of psychopathology. Arieti's chapters are carefully prepared, include historical reviews, and are very systematic. His approach to the problem of psychosis includes the organism, the personality, and society.

Among the chapters that describe the psychopathic states, sexual deviations, drug and alcohol addiction, the chapter on non-psychotic *Alcohol Addiction and Personality* (M. Rosenbaum and I. Zwerling) offers the most thorough and integrated presentation. It includes a well-rounded theoretical discussion of the problem from Freudian, Pavlovian, physiologic, and sociologic points of view. The authors made an excellent use of the interdisciplinary approach to the problem and offered therapeutic suggestions in a very convincing way.

THERE is a great deal of controversy in the problems of treatment which occupy 15 excellent chapters. Dr. Hoch stresses the point that the efficiency of many drugs is still controversial, that the selection of drugs is "made largely on the basis of the clinicians' preference" (p. 1541), and that "these drugs are not, so far as we know, etiological agents in the sense that known mental disorders are treated with chemical agents whose action on the nervous system is known." The rationale of all the physical therapies seems to be dubious, and even L. B. Kalinowski, expert in the field of convulsive shock treatment, prefers to stick to the "purely empirical nature of convulsive therapy," because the "type of metabolic changes taking place and being responsible for a therapeutic effect in the nervous system during such comas, however, remains uncertain" (p. 1517).

A serious omission in the *Handbook* is the problem of differential diagnosis. One could have expected a detailed description of diagnostic methods and research in the chapter devoted to clinical psychology (Helen D. Sargent and M. Mayman). Traditionally, clinical psychologists have done most in the diagnostic field. The reader feels disap-

pointed to find in 15 pages of this chapter only one and one-half pages devoted to diagnostic methods. Rorschach and TAT are described in this chapter in one sentence. The authors of this chapter have not forgotten to mention that Rorschach and TAT "were introduced by two medical men, Hermann Rorschach, Swiss psychiatrist, and Henry A. Murray, American psychologist with medical degree," and added that "both tests owe extensive subsequent development to the work of psychologists" (p. 1711).

No word, however, is said of who these psychologists were, and what was done by them. In vain the reader looks for the contributions of Z. Piotrowski, Suzan Deri, and many other distinguished clinical psychologists in the field of diagnosis, theory, and therapy of mental disorder. Social psychology is, however, well described by G. Murphy, and personality theories by H. Bone.

In total, Arieti's *American Handbook of Psychiatry* is a monumental work that covers the entire field of contemporary psychiatry in a most comprehensive, thorough, and authoritative manner. Despite a certain unevenness in the quality of presentation, inevitable in a work of such scope, it includes a remarkable number of first-rate chapters and is a treasury of information about contemporary psychiatric theory and practice. It is, indeed, the most reliable, comprehensive, and detailed source of reference for all now interested in mental disorder and its treatment.

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## Anthropology for the Uninitiated

Walter Goldschmidt

*Man's Way: A Preface to the Understanding of Human Society*. New York: Henry Holt, 1959. Pp. 253. \$2.90.

Reviewed by IVAN D. STEINER

who is Associate Professor of Psychology at the University of Illinois and just now Ford Foundation Faculty Research Fellow working on group processes and productivity. He is a Michigan PhD of eight years ago, and he reviewed for CP Argyle's *The Scientific Study of Human Behaviour* (Methuen, 1957; CP, Oct. 1957, 2, 258f.).

THIS is a book about anthropology for the intelligent but uninitiated layman. As is indicated by its subtitle, it is a *preface* to the understanding of social behavior, and Goldschmidt does not pretend that it is more than that. Perhaps it can best be described as a lengthy essay in which the novice is introduced to the anthropologist's view of societies and their development. For those who have not already been exposed to such ideas, this little volume by the editor of the *American Anthropologist* can be endorsed enthusiastically.

Frames of reference which guide contemporary social and cultural anthropologists are discussed in an almost impartial fashion. Evolutionary, historical, sociological, psychological, and eclectic approaches are described and illustrated, and the author concludes that all of these systems of explanation should be incorporated into an integrated and comprehensive theory of social behavior. It is not clear how this is to be accomplished, or how the various clans of anthropologists are to be united, but the good will reflected by Goldschmidt's treatment of the tribal totems and taboos which have sometimes kept anthropologists apart suggests that the time for *rapprochement* may be at hand.

The author's own emphasis is on the evolutionary conception of society, but

it is a modern and temperate brand of thought which has been purged of the inevitability, teleology, ethnocentrism, and dogmatism which characterized much of the earlier evolutionary theory. Impelled largely by technological changes, societies are said to have become increasingly more complex and proficient tools for the mastery of man's environment. But stages in this development have been neither discrete nor inevitable, and occasional reversions to earlier forms have occurred. Furthermore, this evolutionary trend has always involved the kinds of historical, sociological, and psychological processes which anthropologists of other persuasions have chosen to treat as the crucial facts of social life.

Readers will learn little about the methods by which anthropologists study societies but will gain only a fragmentary picture of the kinds of data on which anthropological conclusions are based—for this is not a scholarly treatise for professionals nor a handbook for those who wish to learn the techniques of scientific research.

On its dust jacket this book is described as one which "will interest all who are concerned with the nature of human behavior, with the conflicts and problems raised by man's commitment to social living, or with the probable evolution of primitive societies in today's world." Such optimism is unjustified, for this book will not interest many psychologists. Moreover, anthropologists, sociologists, and other social scientists will find it too elementary to be of much value to themselves, and too brief and discursive to serve as a textbook for their students. Indeed, it is probable that those who are most intensely concerned with the problems enumerated on the dust jacket will gain least from a reading of this book.

Nevertheless, Goldschmidt has performed a useful service for his profession. Because it is temperate, unpretentious, and realistic, his volume deserves the attention of a large audience. That the audience may not include many social scientists is of little importance. Anthropology has much to say to the public at large, and Goldschmidt is an effective spokesman.

## What to Do before the Data Come

Lloyd Ring Coleman

*The Practice of Successful Advertising.* Sydney, Australia: Rydge's Business Journal, 1959 (distributed by Bert Garmise Associates, Inc., 20 E. 46th St., New York). Pp. 460. \$9.75.

Reviewed by JAMES V. McCONNELL

*who is Assistant Professor of Psychology at the University of Michigan where he has been for the last four years after a PhD at the University of Texas. He has had polymorphic experience in the field of advertising—as copy-boy, reporter, USN communications officer, disc jockey, the writer and reader of commercials on radio and TV, and a year of lecturing to Norwegians about American radio and TV. Since he sees psychotherapy and advertising as both concerned with the induction of behavioral change, he is offering a course at Michigan on The Psychology of Influence and expects to have authored a book via Henry Holt with the same title about a year from now.*

IF you stood back far enough, so you couldn't see the trees for the forest, you might not be able to distinguish readily between advertising executives and their cousins, the psychotherapists. From a distance, both types of men seem to be primarily artists rather than scientists, chiefly 'service-oriented' or 'process-oriented,' inclined to worry more about making their professional practices explicit than about determining experimentally what effects (if any) those practices might really have on their fellow men. Both groups are engaged in changing or manipulating human behavior, and both seem to be composed mostly of 'men of action' who often cannot afford to postpone decisions simply because they lack what their academic siblings would call 'sufficient research data.'

And standing back thus far from the trees, you might not be able to tell

much difference either between the types of books these two groups of men write, for both fields have spawned an enormous literature composed chiefly of cookbooks, case histories, and theoretical analyses too often unsullied by grimy laboratory 'facts.' It would be refreshing to find a new book in either field whose author combined the how-to-do-it approach with such experimental results as exist, and who then attempted a theoretical integration based on both intuition and data. Lloyd Ring Coleman's *The Practice of Successful Advertising* isn't quite that book, but it comes closer than most others in either field.

Like any book, this one has its strengths and its weaknesses. It is at its best when Coleman is ranging over his 40 years spent in the advertising world, explaining what ad agencies actually do, discussing problems in agency-client relations, telling how media are generally selected, and describing in some detail many of the ad campaigns that he personally directed and that seemed to work fairly well. Here the book has the same pleasantly autobiographical flavor to it that many texts in clinical practice have. Coleman quotes experimental studies when they are pertinent, and when they are 'extant.' Interestingly enough, those types of ads which have received the most intensive study (of the 'send-in-this-coupon' variety) are the ones which yield the least predictable results. The possible causal relation between research and results seems to have been missed by most other advertising executives, however, for, as Coleman points out, agencies spend but a fraction of one per cent of their gross income on research of any kind. Coleman also includes a longish section on psychology which, while not as up to date neurophysiologically as it might be, may still help to make it clear to admen why basic research is necessary if their everyday problems are to receive lasting solution.

The strong emphasis on experimental psychology which pervades this book is not hard to explain—Coleman took his BA in psychology at Rochester before going on to graduate work at Columbia. He passed his General Preliminary Examination and then "left hurriedly for

Paris without going on to the PhD." One of his earliest publishing ventures was *Psychology: A Simplification*, which he wrote in the 1920s with Dr. Saxe Commins, former editor of Random House. In 1928 he joined the J. Walter Thompson Company (the world's largest advertising agency) and is now a director of the Company's Australian operations. He considers that his background in science is at least partially responsible for his success in advertising.

**S**TRANGELY enough, though, *The Practice of Successful Advertising* is weakest when Coleman pushes his scientific zeal a little too far. It is one thing to point out (as he does with waspish glee) that much of Freudian theory still lacks empirical verification, that it will not profit advertisers much to swallow the neo-Freudian soothsayings of the Motivation Researchers. The Ford Motor Company learned this lesson the hard way: the now defunct Edsel was the most 'motivation-researched' auto in history. It may be true that both clinical psychology and advertising badly need the touch of rigorousness that only good, clean, controlled experimentation can give, and that for one field to expect much help from the other is like expecting the halt to support the blind. But it is quite another thing for Coleman to castigate the clinicians for using their intuitions when they have nothing better at hand, while he is spending more than half his book's 460 pages telling advertising personnel how to employ the by-guess-and-by-gosh method 'until the research data are in.' If there is any real difference between Coleman's generally unsubstantiated 'hunch' as to what works in ad campaigns and a psychotherapist's 'clinical intuition' as to what works in therapy, Coleman does not tell us what it is. A little more charity towards his cousins the therapists, less of a 'mote-beam' kind of defensiveness, would surely be more seemly.

Psychotherapy and advertising are both forms of applied psychology, and toilers in both fields would have an easier time of it if experimental psychologists really knew more about what controls human behavior. It is greatly to Coleman's credit that he realizes something must be done to speed up

the gathering of better data in both fields, and that he writes about this need so convincingly. Yet this is merely the first step, for what *The Practice of Successful Advertising* lacks is information on how to get the proper people to

perform the necessary experimentation. Until the needed research is available, anyone concerned with persuasion by advertising may well profit from reading Coleman's insightful hints on what to do until the data come.

## Two Texts: a New Look and an Old

Robert M. Gagné and Edwin A. Fleishman

*Psychology and Human Performance: An Introduction to Psychology.* New York: Henry Holt, 1959. Pp. xvi + 493. \$7.25.

Thomas A. Ringness, Herbert J. Klausmeier, and Arthur J. Singer, Jr.  
*Psychology in Theory and Practice.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1959. Pp. xii + 480. \$6.00.

Reviewed by GEORGE E. BRIGGS

*Dr. Briggs is Director of the Laboratory of Aviation Psychology in Ohio State University's Research Center. He has been there almost since his PhD at Wisconsin seven years ago. He is especially interested in the graduate program in engineering psychology and teaches an introductory course in psychology for engineering students. At present he is also working with P. M. Fitts, H. P. Bahrick, and M. E. Noble on a book to be called Skilled Performance which Wiley will publish sometime in 1960.*

**I**T is the belief of this reviewer that an introductory course in psychology should fulfill two equally important functions: it should enable the college sophomore to learn 'what this psychology is all about,' and it should serve public relations. Obviously, the former undertaking involves the acquisition of concepts and principles, knowledge which is the result of carefully documented laboratory and field research. The latter function is fulfilled if the student's experience in the classroom has been 'pleasant'—a student who develops negative attitudes toward psychology is not apt, in later years, to respond favorably to matters (over which he may have some

control) which can have a direct bearing on psychology as a science and a profession.

Introductory textbooks vary considerably in the extent to which they serve both functions. Some are so intent on the justification of psychological concepts and theory that the text becomes an endless presentation of experiments and data; others strive so diligently to make the material 'meaningful,' personally applicable, or 'interesting' that so little research is cited as to make the result dangerously similar to an extended Sunday supplement series on 'psychology.' It is a pleasure to report that neither of the two texts under review here have veered to either extreme. They do differ, however, in their relative emphases on these two functions. Ringness, Klausmeier, and Singer stress the personal application of psychology, whereas Gagné and Fleishman place more emphasis on the empirical foundations of the science.

**O**F the two books, the Ringness, Klausmeier, and Singer is the more traditional in content and coverage, as one might expect, for Klausmeier is Professor of Education at the University of Wisconsin and Ringness is Assistant

Professor of Education at the same institution. The bulk of this text is devoted to discussions of maturation and development, learning, perception, thinking, emotions, motivation, intelligence and special abilities, the social aspects of behavior, and mental health. The sequence of the several chapters is somewhat unusual, e.g., *Emotions and Motivation* is sandwiched between a good chapter on *Thinking and Communication* and the chapter on *Intelligence*, but the over-all format is quite logical. The general format consists of four major parts. The first and last parts deal with personal adjustment, while the second and third parts are devoted to the traditional topics listed above. The freshman student is assured that college is an important albeit difficult experience, and that psychology can be expected to provide assistance in meeting the stresses of college life. To establish this thesis the authors discuss problem-solving, effective study habits, and the selection of a career. These discussions are well prepared and comprehensive without being 'wordy' or pedantic. Part Four returns to counseling with rather cursory discussions of career issues, marriage, and an abstract description of "life in the armed forces." Had the authors ended on these notes, the text would have left the student somewhat at loose ends, but they save the best for the last: the final chapter is a remarkably lucid and convincing discussion of the place of psychology in relation to theology and philosophy. It represents a high point of the book and would be an excellent final chapter for any introductory text.

**W**HEREAS Ringness, Klausmeier, and Singer stress the application of psychology to personal adjustment, Gagné and Fleishman demonstrate the application of psychology to problems of selection, training, and equipment and system design. No wonder. Gagné, before he became Professor of Psychology at Princeton, was a member of the Air Force Personnel Training and Research Center. Fleishman is now Associate Professor of Industrial Administration and Psychology at Yale. Gagné and Fleishman save their applications section until the last and thus do not provide the student

with an initial 'feeling' for how psychology is useful in real-life problems. This lack of an initial 'bias' has both advantages and disadvantages. The major disadvantage is that the student is given no motivational preview of the uses of psychology; instead, he must read over three hundred pages of text before the authors begin to show the importance of psychology to the solution of real-life problems. The major advantage is that the text should be more generally acceptable, since an initial section on applications would give the text a misdirection toward applied psychology when, in fact, the treatment is in the tradition of texts written from the general experimental point of view.

Although they have written within the tradition of general experimental psychology, Gagné and Fleishman have provided more that is 'new' than that which is 'old.' For instance, from the title of Chapter 3, *Functions of the Behavior System*, one might expect the usual discussions of neurophysiological mechanisms. Instead, Chapter 3 provides the student with an introduction to the use of models in psychology (from servo-theory and communication theory)—a wonderfully clear and advanced treatment. Another unique and excellently written chapter deals with motor skill. Prior to this chapter, the student has been exposed to the traditional topics of learning, retention, and transfer, and to the concepts and principles of discrimination and perception. He therefore encounters the material on motor skill with a good background in fundamentals.

Indeed, Gagné and Fleishman have provided an introductory text which represents the 'new look' in experimental psychology. Their material leans heavily on the concepts and models from servo-theory and communication theory, and their references are predominantly from research accomplished in the last fifteen years. It has been claimed that the use of terms from, say, servo-theory offers nothing really new to psychology. An examination of the Gagné and Fleishman text should indicate otherwise.

The final five chapters of this text are a dramatic illustration of the amount and variety of psychological research

that has been accomplished in the past decade with government support. These chapters include discussions of the social aspects of behavior, the principles of personnel selection and the techniques of job analysis, training principles, and engineering psychology. The last chapter is an excellent introduction to human engineering which clearly indicates that the area has advanced significantly beyond the 'knobs-and-dials' stage.

Over all, both texts are carefully written and well organized. Both should be popular choices for courses in introductory psychology. Gagné and Fleishman offer more of a challenge to the student in that their pace is faster and their depth of coverage is considerably greater than that in the other text. Neither book is truly comprehensive in coverage—a blessing rather than a fault—and neither can be accused of being overdressed with *Life*-like pictures and figures.

## Insecure Data on Infant Security

Betty Margaret Flint

*The Security of Infants.* Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1959. Pp. x + 134. \$3.50.

Reviewed by JUDY F. ROSENBLITH

who is Assistant Professor of Psychology at Brown University and the wife of Walter Rosenblith at MIT. She began her orientation in psychology with premedical training, then shifted to social psychology with G. W. Allport at Harvard, and then to developmental psychology with R. R. Sears, still at Harvard. In association with the Institute for Research in the Health Sciences at Brown, she is now engaged in research on the assessment of neonatal maturation.

**W**HEN one picks up a book entitled *The Security of Infants* one half expects a tract for parents on 'the care and nurture of the human infant.' This reviewer was pleased to find that the



present book addresses itself to people who work professionally with children and deals with an attempt to assess the mental health of infants.

Mrs. Flint received her training at the University of Toronto where she is Senior Research Associate in charge of Infant Research at the Institute of Child Study. She is also a consultant to agencies concerned with infant placement. One can assume that these connections have motivated Mrs. Flint to find better bases for decisions about infants than we now have. Her association with the Institute of Child Study and with Professor Blatz has been the source of her theoretical outlook on the problem of infant assessment.

The book presents the Infant Security Scale, a potential new tool for assessing infants from birth to two years of age. The scale consists of a diagnostic check list of infant behaviors, with items culled from detailed accounts of the actual behaviors of many infants, who have been judged as secure or insecure. The items, grouped into four age-levels of six months each, are categorized and scored according to categories derived from Blatz's Security Theory. The extent to which the espoused theory is supported by the studies presented depends, in the reviewer's opinion, on three criteria: (1) the adequacy of research design, (2) the relation of conclusions drawn to the evidence presented, and (3) the extent to which the categorization of behaviors studied is, in fact, dictated by the theory. Nevertheless, a reliable and valid assessment tool might have been developed even though its relation to theory were quite tenuous.

Let us examine the book in the light of these criteria. Criterion 1: A study of "well-adjusted" and "poorly adjusted" infants was too poorly designed to permit evaluation of the findings. An adequately designed study of institutionalized children is also presented. Data from both studies are combined to assess test-retest reliability. Since both procedures and examiners are disparate it is impossible to assess the data, especially since no evidence on interscorer agreement is given. Criterion 2: Even if we limit our appraisal to the evidence for the institutionalized

infants, we are left with the impression that the leaps from the data to the conclusions are excessive. Criterion 3: The author has not made a sufficient effort to convince the reader that her categorization of behaviors follows inevitably from Security Theory.

Despite the many loopholes in data and methodology, the reviewer is persuaded that a scoreable check list of infant behaviors has been developed. The scores *may* represent something basic about the behavior of the infant. Though scores seem to differentiate between infants from strikingly different populations, the degree to which they do is impossible to determine with the present methodology. Whether it is possible to state, as the author does, that a measure of these behaviors represents an assessment of mental health and throws light on Blatz's Security Theory can hardly be decided now.

One can only applaud the author's effort: (a) to look for key behaviors that are easy to define and rate, (b) to check the relevant items systematically, (c) to order them in a way which yields quantification, and (d) to examine the reliability and validity of the resulting scale. One hopes that she and her colleagues, as well as the others who may wish to use this scale, will collect data that will permit more nearly univocal assessment of their reliability and validity. In the reviewer's opinion, but not always in the author's, the prognostic value of the scale cannot, otherwise, be established.

Mrs. Flint's efforts should certainly be brought to the attention of the relevant publics. Her book, "an interim report," is brief and primarily devoted to a presentation of data. She has not included a newer version of the scale. A monograph would have been a more suitable form of publication.

If the Flint Scale is now used to provide the 'best possible' decisions on placement of infants and on their treatment procedures, we shall still be left (as in so many previous studies) with no way of determining what would have happened if. . . . The problem of control group must not be ignored if we are to test hypotheses regarding the efficacy of this or any other such tool used for clinical purposes.

## How Political Interest Emerges

Herbert H. Hyman

*Political Socialization: A Study in the Psychology of Political Behavior.* Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1959. Pp. 175. \$4.00.

Reviewed by SOHAN LAL SHARMA

*who is a Hindu with a PhD in psychology from the University of Michigan. He has been interested in politics from childhood, a fact consistent with the thesis of this book and reinforced by the intensity of political change in India.*

It has been commonly assumed and believed that interest in politics develops during late adolescence and does not crystallize until early adulthood. In general, in the field of political psychology, the emergence of political interest has, however, remained obscure. The present volume attempts to fill this gap. Written by a well-known sociologist and based on numerous empirical studies, conducted here, in Western Europe, and in Australia, the book strives to show that political participation and behavior are the result of early learning and socialization, which are solidified in a growing child by his first year in high school.

The main conclusion is that class, sex, and educational differences in political awareness and interest emerge earlier than has been hitherto realized. For instance, boys pick up and retain an earlier and more decisive interest in politics than girls; lower class children, while having a liberal outlook and ideology in the economic sphere, are more authoritarian in the political sphere. Several comments on the authoritarianism of the lower class children are made; yet it is not made clear what kind of authoritarianism is referred to—whether of the left or the right. This distinction is crucial in understanding the ramifications and implications of authoritarianism.

The first aspect of political development to emerge is party affiliation.



Once such an affiliation develops, it provides the guiding light in various conflicting sociopolitical situations. One would like to know, however, whether the emergence of party affiliation as the first political awareness occurs in other than a two-party state. One may question such an assumption when one looks at multi-party states like Italy, Austria, and Israel where the party affiliation is fluctuating and simultaneously confusing for the uninitiated.

The discussion makes it quite clear that one of the most decisive factors in generating political interest is parental influence. These studies should, once and for all, debunk the much-prated psychoanalytic interpretation that political radicalism is a form of rebellion against parental authority. The correlation between the parents' political ideology and voting and that of the children is almost never negative, almost always positive, for the parental political interest enhances the child's intellectual sensitivity and ties him to the parent's political party. There may well be such positive motivational determinants for sociopolitical radicalism.

In the reviewer's opinion, the chapter, *Social Change in the Wide Environment*, is the weakest, since it attempts to explain political and social changes on somewhat extraneous and secondary factors like differential birth rate, change mediated via parents, etc. Unfortunately the author lightly dismisses the crucial factors of sociopolitical change—depressions and recessions, war, unemployment—which over a period of many years lay the structure and set the tone for attitudinal changes. One might say that the author deemphasizes the significance of socioeconomic factors, whereas he somewhat unduly emphasizes the individualistic factors in the political change.

The book is somewhat discursive, yet critically written. By juxtaposing and accumulating scattered studies, it provides the reader with numerous exciting leads to follow up in the unmarked area of political psychology.



*The things that happen to people are like the people they happen to.*

—HENRY S. LEWIS

## Predicting the Behavior of Workers

A. Zaleznik, C. R. Christensen, and F. J. Roethlisberger, with the assistance of George C. Homans

*The Motivation, Productivity, and Satisfaction of Workers: A Prediction Study.* Boston: Division of Research, Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University, 1958. Pp. xxii + 442. \$6.00.

Reviewed by FLOYD C. MANN

*Dr. Mann is Director of the Program of Organizational Change in the Survey Research Center and Associate Professor in the Department of Psychology at the University of Michigan. He is a Michigan PhD, not uninfluenced in earlier years by T. M. Newcomb, Daniel Katz, and Rensis Likert. He has been concerned himself for years with organizational functioning and change, and at present is studying problems of co-ordination in ten community general hospitals, the automatic factory of the future as indicated by power plants in the present, and what happens when a large utility changes over to the electronic processing of its data.*

THIS is an extensive account by a team of extremely sensitive and insightful researchers of the problems they faced in attempting to use new methods in their search for understanding human behavior in the work situation. The volume marks a major change in the methodological approach employed by the group of researchers in the Harvard Business School, who are carrying forward the line of studies initiated by Elton Mayo. Instead of simply continuing to make intensive clinical case studies—the methodological hallmark of this tradition—Zaleznik, Christensen, and Roethlisberger have attempted to employ a theoretical model, to derive hypotheses, to operationalize variables and collect data which would predict determinants for membership, productivity, and the satisfaction of workers. That such an undertaking would not be a simple exercise was practically ensured when the researchers

selected as the site of their study a single department, consisting of four functional groups and manned by forty-seven hourly rated men and women who worked at a variety of machining and assembly jobs.

The study was designed to force the research team to be more analytical, but it was the researchers' hope from the outset to combine the advantages of both the analytical and the clinical approach. Homans' conceptual scheme of external and internal systems was selected to provide the theoretical orientation of the study. The first step consisted of obtaining objective data on the external system of the department and its members—the unit's organizational purpose, structure, work flow, standards, and ecology, and its workers' personal history, aspirations, and characteristics—sex, age, seniority, education, pay, and ethnicity. Using these data as 'givens,' Homans and Roethlisberger spelled out thirty-one major hypotheses and fifty-one concrete predictions about the specific internal systems of activities, interactions, and sentiments which would be found within this department. These predictions dealt with the determinants of membership, productivity, and satisfaction at both group and individual levels. Zaleznik and Christensen then spent six months "on the floor," collecting first through clinical and then through systematic observations and interviews the data required to test these hypotheses. The facts were then analyzed and reanalyzed and, when it became evident that both theories and operations were not up to the task, the authors reexamined their theories

and measures one by one (Chapters 8, 9, and 10), using their extensive clinical data to determine the reason for the failure of the predictions.

**T**HREE theories about worker motivation were used to make predictions: a theory of "external and internal reward," one of "distributive justice," and a third of "social certitude." (1) The first of these relies directly upon the concept of need satisfaction as a motivational force. Individual needs are divided into two classes according to whether the need is rewarded by management (external) or by acceptance by the group (internal). These provide the basis for a four-cell paradigm for predicting productivity and satisfaction. The 'rate-buster,' for example, would be a worker who is rewarded by management but not the group. (2) The second theory builds on the notion of a balance between rewards and investments. It assumes that energy expenditure and particularly affective states (e.g., feelings of guilt, injustice, or justice) are related to whether the worker feels that the rewards from the work are commensurate with his investment. (3) The theory of social certitude is concerned with specifying the effects of an individual's external status on group membership and behavior. If the several dimensions of an individual's total social status—education, ethnic origin, etc.—are either consistently high or low, the individual will be more certain of his standing in the eyes of others. He will participate more in work and non-work activities, be more amenable to group norms, be more conservative. The person of less congruent status—one in a state of ambiguity—will be anxious, uncertain of his standing, and probably trying to compensate for insecurity by reducing communication or by excelling in performance.

These three theories are obviously well worth investigating and, when the reader first encounters them, he awaits the findings with keen anticipation. The problem of operationalizing the concepts of these theories was, however, never adequately solved by our authors. They placed too much reliance on the objective sociological variables of pay, age, seniority, education, ethnicity, and

sex. For example, they used pay only as a measure of reward in the computation of reward-investment index to test the theory of distributive justice. Psychologically important rewards of the work situation they left untouched in their attempt to rely only on objective measures and to leave out of account any intervening subjective variables.

*Total status* and *status congruence* together were found to differentiate work groups that vary in their level of internal group development. These same two variables were directly related to regular membership in the informal groupings within the department. *High status* and *low status congruence* predicted isolates, *low status* predicted deviant group membership. The predominant factor in determining membership was ethnicity. Regular group members were Irish; deviants and isolates, non-Irish. Workers who were accepted as regulars tended to abide by group norms and to produce at the group average. Those who were members of informal groups of low status tended to be deviant producers. Regular group membership and Irish ethnicity were each clearly associated with high work satisfaction. No relationship was found between individual productivity and satisfaction.

The final chapter of this volume is directed at the practicing administrator. The authors explore the problem of motivation in our present-day industrial society, after summarizing the findings and characterizing the work groups in this study as "frozen groups"—groups with members who have lost their capacity for growth and development. A review of the motivational assumptions that managements now employ is accompanied by a review of Maslow's thinking regarding hierarchies of needs and their meaning for administration today. This is an excellent chapter for its audience.

In brief, it must be said that this is a difficult book to evaluate. Here a group of researchers make an heroic effort to be more theoretical and more methodologically systematic. Their theoretical orientation and methodological interests, together with their choice of a research site and their decision to concentrate on only objective variables,

have combined to ensure both them and their readers a good deal of frustration—frustration which they write about in a refreshing, candid manner. There are, indeed, many passages that seem to be simply a record of the personal learnings that the authors were gaining from their new approach. And, although the volume is a little long and at times repetitive, it is, nevertheless, a monograph well worth reading and worth reading with care.

## Whole-Childism

George G. Thompson, Eric F. Gardner, and Francis J. Di Vesta

*Educational Psychology*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1959. Pp. xx + 535. \$6.00.

Reviewed by N. L. GAGE

*who is Professor of Education in the Bureau of Educational Research at the University of Illinois. He has his doctorate from Purdue and has been at Illinois in the various professorial levels since 1948. He is primarily concerned with interpersonal perception, teachers' attitudes, and teacher-pupil relationships. Sometimes he teaches the first course in educational psychology.*

**H**ERE is an educational psychology by three competent men. Dr. Thompson has long been a productive research worker and a textbook writer about child development. Dr. Gardner is well known in the circles that are concerned with educational measurement, and Dr. Di Vesta has done important educational research at Air University.

The dominant themes of this book—development, measurement, learning, adjustment (pupils), and adjustment (teachers)—resemble those of previous educational psychologies. Making these matters coordinate in their claims upon the teacher's time and effort, the three authors, all at Syracuse University when the book was written, implicitly uphold what might be called 'whole-childism': everything about the pupil is important,

and the teacher should be concerned about equally with all aspects of the pupil's life. "In modern education the teacher has accepted some of the responsibility for guiding her pupils toward socially acceptable and personally rewarding patterns of psychological adjustment. She is commissioned not only to teach the academic skills but also to lead her pupils toward healthy styles of living and sound appraisals of their potentials for contributing to human welfare." "Knowledge of the personality integration of each pupil is important to the modern teacher, because she is properly concerned with the total development of all her pupils." Statements of this kind abound.

This orientation might have gone unchallenged a decade ago. Now it needs explicit defense. For one thing, many students entering a course in educational psychology still have the idea that the teacher's main function is to teach subject matter to his pupils. And for about ten years, academicians, admirals, and advertising men have been proclaiming intellectual discipline pre-eminent among the aims of the good public school. Of these expectations and movements, the present book seems innocent. No attention is given to either invective or reasoned arguments against 'whole-childism.' The reader would never guess from its content that the book was written in a time of furious debate, lit by the Red rocket's glare, about what teachers should have on their minds.

Nor do the present authors specify the grade level or subject matter of the prospective teacher they address. The teacher's role, as everyone knows, changes radically between the third grade and the tenth, and between music and physics. In spraying their injunctions indiscriminately, the author will impress many students as not to be taken seriously. College students remembering their high-school days will regard much of the advice as unrealistic for high-school teachers. 'Whole-childism' will seem to them to make a lot more sense for the elementary school teacher with 30 pupils for all subjects, five hours a day, than for the high-school teacher with four groups of 30, on one subject, for 50 minutes a day.

The book's interpretations of research often jump a little too far beyond the facts for this reviewer's comfort.

Item: "The results of studies to date make it reasonable to attribute about 25 percent of IQ variability to environmental conditions and 75 percent to genetic factors" (p. 122). Citing Barbara Burks in evidence, they disregard the serious doubts raised by Jane Loevinger's analysis (1943) of the assumption of additivity of hereditary and environmental influences.

Item: The text interprets a study as showing that "different amounts of approval and disapproval by the teacher have a marked influence on the pupil's adjustment" (p. 420). But, as the authors of that study (including one author of this book!) rightly warned, it has nothing to do with influence: "No attempt has been made in this study to infer any cause-effect relationship that may exist between patterns of teacher approval-disapproval and psychological growth of children" (deGroat and Thompson, 1949, 57).

Item: A study is cited as having found that "both high and low grades seemed to facilitate future performance" (p. 259). But that study (Thompson and Hunnicutt, 1944) was done with an *intact* control (ungraded) group. The anomalously high initial performance of that control group serves more to arouse suspicion about accidents of procedure than to provide the basis for so important a conclusion as this. Caution is especially needed since raw gain measures were used rather than analysis of covariance.

Item: The authors cite Steinzor's study (1955) as indicating "that the sheer physical position of participants in a group influences the level of interaction—a circle is recommended as encouraging the greatest flow of communication" (p. 482). This comment implies that Steinzor compared circular seating arrangements with others, but he did nothing of the kind. Rather he found that the degree of interaction among the members of a circularly arranged group was greater among members sitting further away than among members sitting only one or two seats away from one another. It is no little

extrapolation from Steinzor's results to say that "A circle is recommended . . ."

More examples could be given of such lamentable writing. We can ill afford such misinterpretations of what little we have by way of a scientific basis for educational psychology.

The nonverbal adornments of the book often help along the written word, but some of the drawings seem amateurish, especially where people are depicted. The case histories and anecdotes are apt. The prose is for the most part clear and serviceable. In some sections, notably that on measurement, the discussion moves surefootedly through complicated ideas in a way to delight the expert while still beguiling the student. Unfortunately, the book is pockmarked with solecisms like *whom* for *who*, *disinterested* for *uninterested*, and with breathtaking tautologies like "Most teachers hope for positive transfer since the greatest value is placed on this effect."

In a field that is among the most demanding in all psychology for anyone who wants to use science to help with human affairs, the present book represents a moderately successful effort along well-worn lines. Peering intrepidly into his crystal ball, however, this reviewer sees educational psychologies of the 1960s providing more rigorous treatments of teaching, differentiated according to grade level and subject taught, and emphasizing cognitive objectives without neglecting the affective.

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## WHO'RE WHO

THERE are 393 psychologists listed in *Who's Who in America* for 1958-1959 (Vol. 30). *CP* did not have to count them itself as it did for the women (*CP*, March 1960, 5, 78f.); Marquis—*Who's Who* has punch cards for them. That is 0.72% of the 50,645 entries in that volume. If most of them are Fellows of the American Psychological Association, then the 393 would be about 18% of the 2219 Fellows—every fifth Fellow, maybe. *Who's Who of American Women* listed 518 APA psychologists, which is 23% of the Fellows if they are all Fellows—every fourth Fellow is a distinguished woman, maybe, but a distinguished woman by this operational definition is less distinguished than a distinguished person. Since the APA is unaware of sex—at least among its membership—this is about all *CP* can say on this point.

Marquis in their breakdown had 97 categories that ranged from 3519 lawyers (6.95%) down to 16 nurses (0.03%). The psychologists, Marquis-picked, make the 40th from the top of the 97 categories. Here follow 40 items from Marquis' table of 97—all of the top 12 categories, and then 28 of the remaining 85 softer and more scientific categories. "NEC" means "Not Elsewhere Classified"—the people who fail to categorize themselves explicitly.

N

- 3,519 Lawyers (6.95%)
- 3,170 Industrial executives NEC
- 3,010 Higher education: admin.
- 2,371 Federal officials
- 1,964 Educators NEC
- 1,689 Business executives
- 1,629 Writers and editors
- 1,485 Clergymen
- 1,354 Physicians
- 1,272 Banking and credit exec.
- 1,176 Newspaper executives
- 1,140 Medical scientists

- 871 Artists
- 785 Teachers: lang. & lit.
- 615 Chemists
- 582 Economists
- 555 Engineers NEC
- 448 Librarians
- 441 Physicists
- 421 Biological scientists NEC
- 406 Historians
- 367 Teachers: education
- 363 PSYCHOLOGISTS (0.72%)
- 325 Musicians
- 304 Arts educators
- 289 Geologists
- 273 Mathematicians
- 225 Political scientists
- 197 Museum officials
- 194 Sociologists
- 183 Botanists
- 168 Composers
- 150 Educators: business admin.
- 146 Zoologists
- 140 Social scientists
- 106 Social workers
- 93 Anthropologists
- 84 Astronomers
- 80 Physical scientists NEC
- 16 Nurses (0.03%)

In this table there are 4,128 scientists of 12 kinds (including psychology). Add to them the 1,508 social scientists (5 kinds) and you have 5,636. Add in the 1964 "Educators NEC" and you get 7,600, not counting the humanists (historians, literarians, and plain writers). In the sputnik age 15%—more or less—of the *Who's Whosians* are scientists—more or less.

## REVISED REVISION REVISED

TERMAN and MERRILL—that means, since Terman has gone, Maud Merrill James—have now come out with the 1960 revision of the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale, in lovely blue cloth by Houghton-Mifflin and three bright gold normal distribution curves on the out-

side. It is a thread through Terman's lifetime, with a prenatal phase fixed in the Binet-Simon scale of 1908 and now this postmortem by Maud Merrill.

In a way Stanley Hall was the godfather, much as he disapproved of tests. His Clark PhDs, when he was being so deeply concerned with psychology in education, tended to turn up teaching at normal schools. Stanford wanted an educational psychologist. It got Bergström, a Hall man, who unexpectedly died in 1910. Then Stanford invited Huey, another Hall man, who refused in order to stay at Hopkins, and who recommended Terman, a third Hallian, then at the Los Angeles State Normal School, at the same time advising Terman to take the job and to make the development of Binet-Simon intelligence testing his main endeavor in his new post. The result presently was the Stanford Revision of the Binet scale in 1916, introducing the IQ as a practical concept. Then ten years of testing the tests, in association with Maud Merrill, and the Terman-Merrill revision of 1937, improved, extended at the ends, with two forms. Then more years of criticism and now the third distillate, carried through to completion by Dr. Merrill after Terman's death in 1956. It is a single form that keeps the 'best' items and continues to push the concept measured, "intelligence," over toward the Binet type of general functioning, "mental adaptability to new problems," "intelligence in action," away from the more manipulative abilities.

So that is one strand in psychology's warp, 57 years long if you start with Binet's *L'étude expérimentale de l'intelligence* of 1903 and come right on up to now. For 46 of those years Lewis Terman was weaving the weft on the warp, and for 30 of them Maud Merrill.

## MACH'S ANALYSE

ERNST MACH's classical *Analysis of Sensations and the Relation of the Physical to the Psychological* (cf. *CP*, June 1956, 1, 176f.) has now been reprinted as translated into English by C. W. Williams. It thus becomes another contribution by Dover Publications to the convenience of scholarship (1959, xlii + 380 pp., paperbound, \$1.75). It was



the original *Analyse* of 1886 that provided Külpe and Titchener with the parallelistic-positivistic ground of their systems, paradoxically establishing mentalism while denying an ultimate dualism. Experience ("sensation") is the stuff of both physics and psychology, and science becomes physical or psychological only as experience is observed from one point of view or the other. That is Machian positivism, not the later logical positivism, though wise men like Philipp Frank see the whole movement as continuous with Mach as its genius.

The German *Analyse* of 1886 was revised up to the 6th edition of 1911. (Mach died in 1916.) The English translation of the 1st edition was published by the Open Court Publishing Company in 1897, of the 5th edition in 1914. The Dover edition reprints the latest translation, the 5th edition—photographically, even to the Index; the pages actually look familiar—and adds a 23-page introduction and a 36-item bibliography, both by Thomas S. Szasz, Professor of Psychiatry in the State University of New York.

Szasz, on the whole, provides an excellent introduction. He knows his Mach well, quite properly quotes Philipp Frank, and makes his own wise and mature comment. On the other hand, his effort to exhibit an effective relationship between Mach and Freud seems to this editor a tour de force. Of course there was a relation. Both were thinking within the same *Zeitgeist*. Both were impatient of dualism, yet realized the necessity of keeping on with both mind and body, while achieving, nevertheless, a unity for science. But that was Fechner's problem too, and Helmholtz's, as well as Mach's and Freud's. It was a common reaction to the dualistic dilemma of the burgeoning scientific period of the nineteenth century. For many the resolution was satisfactory;

for many others the dilemma still persists—perhaps more acutely nowadays for European psychologists than for the Americans who can more readily accept Mach.

#### BOOKS TO COME

EVERY time it begins to look as if the history of psychology were losing out in competition for the interest of living psychologists, something happens that points the other way. Now J. P. Chaplin of the University of Vermont and T. S. Krawiec of Skidmore College are readying a book that is to be called *Systems and Theories in Psychology*. It is to be published next fall by Henry Holt and Rinehart after their pending marriage. Rinehart got the child started and Holt will be a stepparent. The interesting thing about the book is that it will treat standard topics like sensation, perception, and personality genetically, going well back—sometimes into British empiricism—and coming on up to the present minus ten years (oh, that latest ten years on which no historian ever has a perspective!). Well, this book will emphasize the continuity of thought, and that's right. The Great-Man Theory of originality and discovery edges over daily to make more room for the Deterministic Model of social progress in wisdom, Carlyle yielding to Tolstoy, hero-worship becoming more and more an adolescent activity. Woodworth is still working on the second revision (third edition) of his *Contemporary Schools of Psychology*, and Heidebreder's *Seven Psychologies*, now aged twenty-seven, still gets used quite a lot, but this book will be different. It might even help to teach psychologists that Great Men are only the Handles of History, put there by the scholar to help him get a grip on the smooth surfaces of the continuity of thinking.

—E. G. B.

## The Projective Jump

Philippe Halsman

*Jump Book*. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1959. Pp. 94. \$3.75.

Reviewed by WILLIAM A. HUNT

who is Professor of Psychology and Biology at Northwestern University, a clinical psychologist, the author of *The Clinical Psychologist* (Charles C Thomas, 1956; CP, July 1957, 2, 183f.), too wise a man ever to be stuffy, too sensitive ever to miss the point, enough of a realist to find truth in fun.

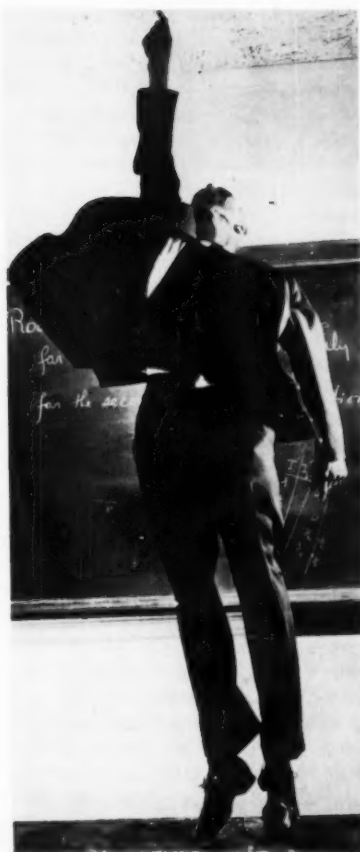
PHILIPPE HALSMAN is a distinguished and versatile photographer with a subtle, yet robust sense of humor, as witness his *The Frenchman*, a progenitor and still the best of the contemporary flood of 'humorous' photographic albums. The present collection, some of which appeared in *Life* magazine, continues the current clinical interest in projective devices by recording the behavior of some of his famous camera subjects when he asked them to jump for him. The request is unusual, the motor coordination demanding, and the social implications exacting (try it!). As Halsman says, the social masks of personality fall and "the real self becomes visible."

Further Halsman comments, "The urge of an ordinary person to find out our innermost secrets is called nosiness and is despicable. When it is done scientifically by a person with an appropriate college degree, it is called psychology and is admirable." I might add that when done by 'candid' photographers it is often sadistic, salacious, and confirmatory of psychoanalytic theories of scopophilia. Not so in this case. The pictures here are selected with sensitivity and genuine empathy, although in most cases they are tremendously revealing. The photograph of the Duchess of Windsor watching the Duke as he jumps imparts an understanding that no contrived personal memoirs or impartial dry historical analysis can hope to fur-

*The air of the amateur which characterizes so much of English scholarly writing is partly the result of long training to write easily and informally, and partly the tone of one writing to and for his friends. It is rare for an English scholarly work to be hard to read.*

—EUGENE P. CHASE





—Simon and Schuster

J. ROBERT OPPENHEIMER in mid-air. From Philippe Halsman's *Jump Book*.

nish. It is a real contribution to the romantic memorabilia of our time.

The author has provided a brief theoretical context for his technique. He has a capacious cheek and penetrating tongue and the interaction between them is delightful, and gently devastating at its best. Your reviewer was asked if he might contribute a humorous review, but the book charmed him and he became involved, and it is hard to be funny at the expense of a friend. For psychologists who can enjoy a busman's holiday, who can laugh and relax without leaving their professional field, this album should provide an amusing and profitable evening. And one reading will not be enough!



**BOOKS**

## **HANDBOOK of RESEARCH METHODS in CHILD DEVELOPMENT**

*Edited by PAUL HENRY MUSSEN, University of California, Berkeley.* Here at last is a book which provides broad coverage of research methodology in the study of child development. Not only does it offer highly specific accounts of particular research methods and clinical techniques, it also deals with the general methodological issues which the field involves. The book is divided into five sections: Part I discusses the general research design and the use of observation and experimental methods in the field of child development; Part II deals with the study of biological growth and development; Part III is concerned with the study of cognitive processes (perception, learning, language, etc.); Part IV presents the major research tools used in the study of personality development; and the final section covers techniques used in the study of the child's social behavior and environment. Each chapter of the book was written by an outstanding teacher or research worker in the field, and the research wisdom and "know-how" provided by the contributors to the volume can be readily applied in many areas of study other than child development.

### **The contributors . . .**

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**New York 16, N.Y.**

# The Unexplored Exceptional Child

Harry J. Baker

*Introduction to Exceptional Children.* (3rd ed.) New York: Macmillan, 1959. Pp. xvi + 523. \$6.50.

H. Michal-Smith (Ed.)

*Management of the Handicapped Child: Diagnosis, Treatment and Rehabilitation.* New York: Grune & Stratton, 1957. Pp. x + 276. \$6.50.

Winthrop M. Phelps, Thomas W. Hopkins, and Robert Cousins

*The Cerebral-Palsied Child: A Guide for Parents.* New York: Simon and Schuster, 1958. Pp. xiv + 237. \$3.95.

Reviewed by MARK STEPHENS

*Dr. Stephens, a PhD from Ohio State University, is Assistant Professor of Psychology in Purdue University and supervisor of training there in child clinical psychology. He has been a staff psychologist at the Children's Mental Health Center in Columbus, Ohio, and he and his wife have each worked with children who have disabilities. His more academic concerns are with theory and research in personality, and hence comes his faith that the psychology of the exceptional child could be explored and understood if more investigators could find the time and manufacture the motivation for such study.*

"THE psychology of exceptional children" is currently in about the same spot as was "child psychology" thirty years ago. Interest and opinion are vigorous; but information is almost nonexistent.

The books which have emerged from such circumstances are deceptive. They are readable, and they convey information; but after a moment's reflection one realizes that the information conveyed is only a substitute for information definable as *psychology*. There are data concerning the incidence of various handicaps (e.g., growth curves), etiology (e.g., discussions of genetics), the structural phenomena attendant to the various handicaps (e.g., body proportions, carpal

ages), and programs designed to deal with the handicapped (e.g., the reams of child-rearing advice); but nowhere are there significant data as to the psychological effects or correlates of such conditions, or as to the psychological benefits of such programs. In short, from these books one can learn a lot about exceptional children, but little about their psychology.

Beyond this analogy there lies another more subtle one. It is apparent that these books are inspired by missionary zeal, by attempts to use the subject matter as a springboard for the advancement of theoretical-moral points of view, and by a desire to lay claim to a new topical area. The 'field' thus claimed may be roughly staked out, but it has not yet been worked. The interest, then, lies not in marketing the nuggets already uncovered, nor does it seem to be in the making of plans to secure new nuggets at any proximate date, but rather to lie strictly in posting and proclaiming—and defending—the claim itself.

The three titles listed above might be considered immune from such comments. As different as they are (one is addressed to the parents of palsied children, one to teachers of exceptional children, and one apparently to pediatricians in general practice), they bear the one common characteristic that none intends to be a textbook concerning the

psychology of exceptional children, but only an application of as yet unestablished facts. Application of a body of knowledge which does not yet exist becomes an empty proclamation. Really, there are not yet available enough data on which to base such general advices and techniques.

THE most specifically directed of these three books, and therefore the one requiring the most explicit consideration, is the book-length message to the parents of the palsied from Phelps and his co-workers. In this little volume one can find the clearest illustration of the considerable values, and also the limitations, of presenting a subject matter entirely based on clinical observations and on close rapport with the population. From decades of experience in caring medically and otherwise for the palsied, Dr. Phelps is practical, confident, and replete with the wisdom of common sense. He is also, however, inclined to take for granted things which could—and should—be verified, and to fall out of touch with collaborative fields.

*The Cerebral-Palsied Child: a Guide for Parents* is in many respects exactly what has been wanted by those who have worked professionally with such children—and by parents. It is throughout instructed by a friendly, practical, guardedly optimistic attitude. Starting with a foreword by Frances Horwich (television's *Miss Frances*), the tone is what you would expect in the office of a warm and wise family doctor. The fact that Dr. Phelps is virtually the father of America's cerebral palsied—he was one of the first to become concerned, and to make others concerned, about the palsied and is almost personally responsible for the extent to which this interest has developed—is apparent in every paragraph. He cautions against misadvice, and both directly and indirectly allays anxiety and reduces the shock experienced by parents. Then he goes on to present a direct account of what is to be done, without spending time on regret. This formula should do all that can be done by a book to combat the rejection, repugnance, guilt, overprotection, and refusal to accept immutable limitations that so frequently afflict the parents of the palsied and thereby induce the psy-

chological handicap which can so easily come to accompany the physical one.

These qualities make the book valuable, but others will make many psychologists wince and wonder whether they should show it to parents after all. One first regrets the vacillation between a condescendingly simple style, appropriate for only the most naive, and a confusingly technical one: definitions and distinctions are often overemphasized enough to confuse rather than to clarify, and in any case they seem more likely to increase the concern with morbidity and pathology than to reduce it. One becomes even more uneasy about the wholesale, across-the-board advice dispensed—for example, in a section on *How to Discipline a Child* (p. 115). Many psychologists will be refreshed to see that the orientation represents a swing back from the *Don't Thwart the Child* disciplinary dictum of the past 30 years; yet many will also wonder whether the swing has gone too far (e.g., again on p. 115, "Never accept the answer 'no' from a child when the only correct answer is an obedient 'yes.'"). Such advice, if good for some, must be bad for others—and it is the 'others' who will be likely to remember it.

More serious yet are a few instances of what must be considered misinformation, or at least extremely dubious information. One can slide by "cerebral palsy is rarely inherited" (p. 3) with only a mild question. Also minor are various other rather premature conclusions, such as "*variable hearing . . .* is apparently due to some unusual type of brain injury" (p. 58). But the heavy emphasis on handedness and on the evils of mixed dominance is dangerous. Here the author takes the most extreme position, with the implication that all authorities agree. Mixed dominance is "one of the major causes of stuttering and delayed speech" and also of "behavior problems and seizures" (p. 20). A child thus afflicted "cannot keep his mind fixed for long on any single thought. He is restless and highly distractible; nothing holds his attention. He wanders about aimlessly. He upsets objects. He throws things on the floor. He interferes with other children . . . may be incorrectly diagnosed as a true mental

defective" (p. 21). "Occasionally drastic measures such as the immobilization of one hand must be taken until complete dominance of hand and speech centers is established" (p. 23).

Other misinformation, or lack of information, regarding the competence of nonmedical professions may concern these professions more than parents, but might still mislead the latter. The evaluation of hearing loss and the fitting of aids are assigned to the otologist and otolaryngologist; the audiologist will look in vain for mention of his existence. Psychologists may be irked to see themselves publicly admonished not to "let emotionalism enter into their evaluation of a child's mental ability or intelligence" (p. 64). And physical and occupational therapists may find themselves fairly limited by the cut-and-dried description of their duties and techniques.

THE nature of *Management of the Handicapped Child* is altogether different. In its thirteen 20-page chapters, each contributed by a different author or two, the information is abundant, current, and well documented. The sophistication of the various essays is uniform and great—perhaps, indeed, extreme; there is anything but condescension in these pages. No one, on the other hand, could accuse the book of being readable, for approximately the same reasons.

This volume is apparently intended for pediatricians in general practice. The uncertainty of this intention—an uncertainty of the contributors, it would seem, as well as of this reviewer—constitutes the major criticism of the product. Dr. Michal-Smith, a psychologist among MDs (at various hospitals and welfare agencies in New York City, and at the New York Medical College), suggests in his introduction that the work is directed to "the professional people who meet these [handicapped] children daily." But the volume is also offered as a continuation and extension of *Pediatric Problems in Clinical Practice* (same editor and publisher, 1954); and the pediatrician seems, more than anyone else, to be the target.

Most pediatricians and other professionals will find these essays more care-

ful than helpful. The specialist-contributors (four psychiatrists, eight other MDs, and six PhDs and MAs) often seem to be writing more to their specialty-peers than to other specialists. Occasionally there is a suggestion, not always well advised, as to what the pediatrician can do in counseling or in otherwise treating conditions such as 'nervous habits' and speech problems; and once or twice he is advised to refer such conditions to appropriate professionals. More than anything, however, the chapters seem to be attempts to define, clearly, fully, and with greatest care, professional orientations to various handicaps. The pediatrician will certainly be informed about these handicaps (if he can weather through the highly technical literature), but he may not know much what to do about them.

Nevertheless these essays are to be recommended. The two concerning behavior problems are each of a clear theoretical slant—Allen's with his familiar neo-Rankian view and Michal-Smith's with an equally familiar Freudian one. Both are intelligent and intelligible accounts. The predictable chapter on the intellectually gifted, this time written by Gertrude Hildreth, can no more seem to belong among accounts of the less fortunately exceptional than such a chapter ever can; still it is well written and well thought out. And so, with uncommon consistency, are the others. The authors are, after all, less concerned with the psychological aspects of these handicaps than with the direct physical aspects; and these they discuss well.

BAKER's book is the most nearly modal volume concerning exceptional children and will surely be the most widely read. The fact that it is now in its third edition should make that a good bet. The author has long been interested in the contribution a psychologist can make to public schools and schooling. This volume, as its previous editions, is primarily concerned with what to do with atypical children in a school system.

It is here that the plight of "the psychology of exceptional children" becomes most apparent. This book, unlike the other two, is *not* concerned pri-

marily with the physical and medical aspects of crippling conditions, but with how to deal with the exceptional over and beyond their physical and medical treatments. But it never seems to get over and beyond. There is information in these pages, and there is psychology; but there is no notable increase, over previous editions or other books, in information about psychology specific to this population.

Nevertheless the accomplishments of the author should not be neglected. The information he conveys is of value, and perhaps essential, to the present and prospective teachers of the exceptional. To fill this need may have been his only purpose. With the educational and psychological philosophy one cannot find fault; such matters are subject to debate, but it is unlikely that many would find much to debate about. To convey important information and an important philosophy in one book is no mean feat. Most important of all, in the 15 years since the first edition, Dr. Baker has remained a major influence, in the Detroit schools and no doubt elsewhere, in the move to provide educationally for those who do not fit into regular classrooms, to help the handicapped rather than hide them, and to make use of their abilities without letting them be wasted. This movement is exciting, and its authors are highly to be praised.

Nevertheless, there is more to be done, and one is disappointed when it is not done. Time enough has passed to learn more about the psychology of exceptional children and to learn more concretely of the relative merits of different procedures for dealing with them. There is discouragingly little indication that much time has been spent in this pursuit.

What is needed now, then, is some systematic research into the psychological phenomena involved in the various handicaps and in handicaps in general. Actually one would like to know more about specific sociocultural and parent-attitudinal factors, about possible physiological predispositions, and about the interactions of these factors as they are associated with the psychology of the handicapped. The theoretical structures available for generating such research abound: Adlerian psychology (and it is

puzzling indeed that his hypotheses have not been carried into this, their most appropriate area), the Kansas somatopsychology, the body-image theory, even Freud. Those who have worked closely enough with the handicapped to write about them must have their own hy-

potheses, if only they would make them explicit—and then test them. To pursue such research will not only produce a topical area of some fascination, but should place on much firmer footing the 'applied' efforts to render handicaps as unhandicapping as possible.

## The Perceiving of Persons

Renato Tagiuri and Luigi Petrullo (Eds.)

*Person Perception and Interpersonal Behavior.* Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1958. Pp. xx + 390. \$7.50.

Reviewed by HERBERT C. KELMAN

*Dr. Kelman is a Yale PhD, who has held research fellowships at Hopkins and spent a year at the Center for Advanced Study in the Behavioral Sciences and who is right now a Lecturer in Social Psychology at Harvard University. He is concerned with any situation in which social influence operates, thus with psychotherapy and international contacts. He is studying the effects of a year in America upon Scandinavian visitors. Next year Wiley will be publishing his book on Social Influence and Personal Belief.*

**I**N March 1957, the Office of Naval Research sponsored a three-day symposium on person perception, held at Harvard University. The present volume is, essentially, a product of this symposium, with 19 of its 23 chapters based on symposium papers. In addition, two classic papers which have had a decisive influence on thinking and research in this field are, very appropriately, reprinted here: Fritz Heider's 1944 paper on *Social Perception and Phenomenal Causality*, and R. B. MacLeod's 1947 paper on *The Phenomenological Approach to Social Psychology*. Also included are two hitherto unpublished brief papers by Heider.

The symposium papers cover a very wide range, both in terms of the substantive problems to which they address themselves (from binocular rivalry to the metaphysics of being) and in terms of the purposes that they set for

themselves. Included are reports on single studies, reports on research programs, theoretical analyses, methodological analyses, and critiques. The usual cliché about the 'unevenness of the contributions'—which one can ascribe to symposium volumes without even reading them—does not apply here. One is struck by the high level of sophistication, seriousness, and maturity that this collection conveys. The editors-organizers of this symposium must be congratulated for the wisdom—or sociometric know-how—that they displayed in naming 'the 25 people with whom you would most like to associate in a conference on person perception.'

What is surprising, and somewhat disconcerting (at least for a reviewer), is that there is no attempt to impose any kind of organization on this array of materials. There is an introduction by Tagiuri, in which he discusses briefly the present status of the field of person perception and poses some of the central issues; but there is no attempt to show where the different chapters in the book fit into the general picture, to distinguish some of the important themes that are represented, or to pull together in some meaningful way the diverse findings and approaches. There is not even any system, so far as I can see, in the order of the chapters.

This lack of structure is certainly not due to a lack of talent on the part of the editors, and it is probably not due to a lack of industry either. Apparently it





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*By Edward S. Bordin.* Intended primarily for graduate students, especially those planning to become counseling or clinical psychologists, this text strikes a balance between the side of counseling which emphasizes helping the client to understand and direct his impulses, and the side which stresses more straightforward information giving. 409 pages. \$5.00

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**Appleton-Century-Crofts, 35 W. 32nd St., New York**



represents a deliberate decision, based on a fear of imposing structure on a field which is still very much in the process of development. It must be remembered that this volume is the very first attempt to bring together the work on person perception, a problem which is only now beginning to acquire status as a field of inquiry in its own right. The editors apparently felt that it would be premature to order the field at a time when we hardly know what it contains. Personally, I feel the volume and the field would have benefited from some attempt at ordering, but I can understand the rationale for the editors' decision.

The book must be viewed then, essentially, as a series of vignettes portraying life among the person perception researchers today (or yesterday, considering the lateness of this review). Together, they constitute a progress report, based on a sampling of what is probably the best research and thinking going on in this field. Thus, the book gives the reader an image of the field, but leaves it up to him to evaluate its current status, to find continuities, and to attempt an integration.

JUDGING from the papers contained in this volume, it would seem that current research on person perception can be placed, very roughly, into three general categories.

(1) Studies that are primarily concerned with an analysis of the *perceptual* or *cognitive processes per se*, in the special case in which the object is another person: Such studies might deal with the process of impression formation on the basis of inferences from specific traits (J. S. Bruner, David Shapiro, and Renato Tagiuri; W. L. Hays), or on the basis of inferences from physiognomic cues (P. F. Secord). They might be concerned with the effects on perceptual processes of familiarity and emotional involvement with the object (W. H. Ittelson and C. W. Slack), or of the kind of psychological structure that is activated by the object in a particular situation (Helen Peak). Or, they might focus on the way in which language is used in the interpretation of qualities of other people (S. E. Asch).

Some of the investigators represented

in this category are concerned with various determinants of these perceptual processes—including cultural factors, perceiver attributes, and the relation between perceiver and object. The focus of the research in this category, however, is the process of perception or cognition as such: how do people recognize, identify, distinguish the metric properties of, categorize, make inferences about, and describe human objects. These studies are continuous with and contributory to the literature on perception and cognition in general, although they take into account the special circumstances arising when the object is another person.

(2) Studies that are primarily concerned with an analysis of the *process of social interaction*, and that examine perceptual variables as part of this process: Such studies might be concerned with the ways in which the definitions and purposes of different interaction situations determine the nature of the perception of the other—i.e., the dimensions of the other to which the individual will be particularly sensitive, and his resulting evaluation of the other (E. E. Jones and J. W. Thibaut). They might deal with the effects of different perceptions of others, as they develop in the course of interaction with them, on the individual's attraction to and subsequent association with these others—for instance, the effect of perceiving the other as enhancing or reducing one's own power (Murray Horwitz), or as causing in one or another way one's own positive or negative states (Albert Pepitone), or as sharing one's own attitudes toward important things (T. M. Newcomb). Or, finally, they might explore the patterns of relationship between group members' likes and dislikes for each other and their perceptions of other members' likes and dislikes (Renato Tagiuri).

The research in this category contributes primarily to the understanding of social interaction—of processes of affection and rejection, power and influence, group structuring and subgroup formation. Perception of the other is viewed as an important variable because—being both a product and a determinant of interaction—it can greatly enlighten the analysis of the process.

(3) Studies that are primarily concerned with the *characteristics of the perceiver*, as these are manifested in his interpersonal perceptions: Typically, these studies involve the derivation of 'social perception' scores, based on a comparison between the subject's prediction of another person's responses with the other's actual responses, or with the subject's own responses. These scores can be used as indicators of certain personality characteristics of the perceiver—such as empathy, sensitivity, or insight—which can then be related to other variables. They can also be used to measure certain aspects of an individual's relationship to a *particular* other, such as perceived similarity, and can then be related to various outcomes of their interaction. These studies are continuous with the work on personality measurement, and with the interpersonal emphasis in current personality theory. While they are very much concerned with interpersonal relations (usually of a dyadic nature) their focus is not on the process of interaction as such, but on the characteristics of the perceiver. (They differ, in this sense, from the studies of Newcomb and Tagiuri which use similar measures, but are primarily interested in an analysis of social interaction.)

Numerous studies in this tradition have been carried out in the last decade, but there has been increasing dissatisfaction with this work, stemming in large part from the ambiguities and artifacts that surround the typical 'social perception' measure. This dissatisfaction is clearly reflected in the present volume. Even though this category of studies accounts, by far, for the largest proportion of person perception research, F. E. Fiedler's chapter on *Interpersonal Perception and Group Effectiveness* is the only one that is specifically devoted to a report of research in this tradition. And even this chapter is not precisely relevant to perceptual phenomena, since Fiedler reinterprets his 'assumed similarity' score as a measure of a response set.

The other three chapters that I would place in the third category are all devoted to far-reaching criticisms of research in this tradition. They question very seriously the procedures and phi-

losophy of data collection (A. H. Hastorf, S. A. Richardson, and S. M. Dornbusch), the usual analysis and interpretation of 'dyadic' data (L. J. Cronbach), and the use of these data as measures of certain theoretical concepts—specifically, of identification (Bronfenbrenner). In the final analysis, all three of these chapters demand considerably more work from the investigator: Hastorf et al. by proposing that perceptual data be collected in terms of categories relevant to each individual perceiver; Cronbach by proposing an elaborate analytic treatment of social perception scores (which impresses me as more trouble than it is worth); and Urie Bronfenbrenner by proposing that research be designed on the basis of a careful theoretical analysis of the issue.

ONE of the symposium papers, A. I. Hallowell's very interesting *Ojibwa Metaphysics of Being and the Perception of Persons*, does not fit readily into my three-way classification. It describes the Ojibwas' belief in a category of other-than-human persons that are, however, continuous with human beings. This belief seems to have some marked effects on the characteristics of others to which the Ojibwa are particularly sensitive. Needless to say, this chapter is somewhat off the mainstream of the book, but, of course, the inclusion of an anthropologist in a social-psychological symposium is *comme il faut*, if not *de rigueur*, these days.

I have omitted three other papers from my classification because I could not see their relevance to the problem of the book at all. One is Joan Criswell's very useful analysis of the effects of the experimenter's perception of his own role and of his subjects on his research—a very fine paper, but what is it doing here? The second is O. K. Moore's paper on *Problem Solving and the Perception of Persons*, which describes a very absorbing and ingenious experimental situation involving other people, but in which perception of these others does not enter as a variable at all. The third is R. R. Blake's chapter, which deals with the effects on an individual's actions of observing the actions of others. This can be interpreted as involving the effects of the perception of consensus, or

of group norms, or of social expectations, but it certainly does not deal with the other person as the perceptual object (except perhaps in one situation in which the perceived status of the other was varied). Obviously, person perception was involved in these studies in the sense that it is always involved when people get together, but it was in no way being studied—as an independent, dependent, or mediating variable. I think the criteria for inclusion should not have been so loose, particularly since it was the purpose of the book to allow the reader to develop an image of the field. Over-inclusiveness of this sort tends to blur the image and to make it more difficult for the reader to focus on the problem to which the volume addresses itself. But this is a minor quibble.

Having looked in on the person perception researchers, then, what can we say about the current status of the field? There is no question that there has been a great deal of progress in the past decade and that person perception has established itself as a field of inquiry, even if its boundaries are still not defined. The growth has not only been in quantity of output. A reading of the Tagiuri-Petrullo volume shows clearly that there is at least some very excellent work going on in the field.

To be sure, there has been a rash of studies—particularly studies using various kinds of accuracy and assumed similarity scores—that are of questionable validity. But the interesting thing is that, in its brief history, research in person perception has not only had its fad but it has already—in large degree—overcome it. There has been an admirable growth in sophistication and awareness of basic issues.

The criticisms of social perception scores do not imply, by any means, that this kind of measurement is useless. They point to its complications and limitations. They make it very clear that it is not the royal psychometric road to the understanding of the dyadic and interpersonal that some enthusiasts once thought it to be. Such measures may still turn out to be useful tools for research in this field, but they are no substitute for a sound theoretical analysis, whether this analysis is rooted in

personality theory or in a theory of social interaction.

As of the moment, the second group of studies that I have outlined above—those rooted in the analysis of processes of social interaction—impresses me as the most vital, since they are imbedded in meaningful theoretical frameworks. I found the chapter by Jones and Thibaut, for example, to be really exciting, and I would view their approach as a useful base for sound and illuminating research. Of course, it is true that the chapters in this group come closest to my own interests and orientation. To that extent, my judgment may be only a further illustration of the relationship between "interpersonal attraction and perceived similarity of attitudes toward important and relevant objects."

## The Latest on Child Development

William E. Martin and Celia Burns Stendler

*Child Behavior and Development*. (Rev. ed. of *Child Development*, 1953.) New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1959. Pp. xxii + 618. \$6.00.

Willard C. Olson

*Child Development*. (2nd ed.) Boston: D. C. Heath, 1959. Pp. xii + 497. \$6.25.

Reviewed by ALBERTA ENGVALL SIEGEL

who is Associate Professor of Child Development at Pennsylvania State University, where she has been since her PhD at Stanford. She is a Consulting Editor for *Child Development* and reviewed Stone and Church's *Childhood and Adolescence for CP* (Random House, 1957; CP, Nov. 1957, 2, 283f.).

REVISED editions are now available of two widely used textbooks in child development. Although the books have similar titles, they are very different in content and emphasis. Martin and

Stendler are but seven pages into their introductory exposition when they present and define the term *socialization* and mention the psychoanalytic and the learning-theory approaches to this focal phenomenon. Olson, on the other hand, introduces the terms *nature* and *nurture* on his first page, and by the end of the second is already alluding to *height age*, *weight age*, *dental age*, *carpal age*, etc.

Each revision represents an enlargement of nearly a hundred pages. Whereas both books are interdisciplinary, the weights given to disciplines other than psychology differ. Olson draws heavily on pediatrics, anthropometry, anatomy, and education, while Martin and Stendler draw most heavily from sociology and anthropology. Neither book is written specifically for students of psychology.

WHEN it appeared in 1953, the book by Martin and Stendler was notable for its emphasis on psychoanalytic and learning theories, its inclusion of cross-cultural material, and its focus on social influences. Its principal topical divisions—*The Child, Society and Culture*, *Socialization*, and *Socializing Agents*—represented a departure and an innovation. More recent books have followed the lead of this one, robbing it of its initial uniqueness by the sincerest form of flattery. In their 1959 revision, Martin and Stendler show some tendency to 'return' to the more traditional topics of developmental psychology, dropping the separate section on *Society and Culture* and presenting a new section on *Normal Development*—cognitive, motivational, and physical-motor.

This book is both attractive and readable, and it will doubtless continue to enjoy wide use in the courses on child development taught in schools of education, institutes of child study, and schools of home economics, as well as in departments of psychology. William E. Martin, who serves his profession generously as editor of the publications of the Society for Research in Child Development, is a Professor in the Department of Child Development and Family Life at Purdue University, while Mrs. Stendler is a Professor in the College of Education of the University of Illinois.

Olson's text "has been written with the needs of teachers and prospective teachers in mind. The emphasis is on children in school." Of its fourteen chapters, six are specifically concerned with the child and his school, bearing on such topics as *Development of Educational Achievement*, *The Teacher in Individual and Group Relationships*, and *Development through Curriculum and Methods*.

WILLARD C. OLSON is one of the most distinguished of the American psychologists now pursuing careers in the field of education. He has for some years been Professor of Education and Dean of the School of Education at the University of Michigan, as well as Professor of Psychology there. His book draws on the dominant traditions of the movement in child development during the last decades. Maturation is emphasized, and the notion of the "unfolding" of abilities finds a place. The findings from longitudinal studies of growth and development are highlighted. Stress is given to pacing environmental stimulation of a child with that child's developmental timetable.

Although the tradition of thought about development represented by Olson's book has noticeably waned as a force guiding current research, we have from it today a rich heritage of knowledge with direct implications for education and guidance. This knowledge may be especially pertinent now, as educators face pressures to return to traditional methods and concepts of instruction. It is unfortunate that the merits inherent in the content of this text are obscured by the author's obfuscatory expository style and by the publisher's apparent attempt to cram the maximum possible amount of print onto each page.

THE text of Martin and Stendler is clearly more representative of current research interests in this interdisciplinary field than is Olson's. However, much of Martin and Stendler's material may also be included in introductory courses in psychology, sociology, ethnology, social psychology, and social foundations of education. As the boundaries between disciplines are blurred or

erased, there is a danger that some of our students will be confronted repeatedly with the same substantive material, to the neglect of other contributions. One wearies of meeting students who 'know all about' the influences of socioeconomic status on the IQ, but who do not know what an age scale is. Olson's book presents a point of view and a body of literature which are not likely to appear in other introductory courses with wide enrollments, and which for this reason may deserve special emphasis in a course on child development for students of education.

The book by Martin and Stendler will perform its most useful service for students who do not take many other courses in the social sciences. Olson's will be especially valuable for students in education who have opportunities for grounding in the social sciences in other courses.

## The Whitish Blacks

Audrey M. Shuey

### *The Testing of Negro Intelligence.*

Lynchburg, Va.: J. P. Bell Company, 1958. Pp. viii + 351. \$4.00.

Reviewed by ROGER K. WILLIAMS

who is Head of the Department of Psychology in Morgan State College in Baltimore. He is a PhD of 1946 from Pennsylvania State College and recognizes an intellectual debt to B. V. Moore, Edward van Ormer, Edward Bernreuter, and C. C. Peters. He is mainly interested in teaching, in training undergraduates to be good graduate students, in testing and the prediction of collegiate achievement, and in the construction of achievement tests in particular fields of psychology.

THIS is a timely book. It will interest some psychologists, social workers, and school officials because it cumulates statistics on the topic. It is primarily a summary of "the results" of some 240 separate investigations, not of "the comments and conclusions" of the original investigators, and it ends up

with what the author regards as an inescapable conclusion: that all Negro-white differences in psychometric test performance "point to the presence of some native differences."

The author, Professor Shuey, has been Head of the Department of Psychology at Randolph-Macon Woman's College for the last fifteen years. She holds a Columbia doctorate as of 1931.

Her book purports to be a comprehensive survey of the problem of Negro intelligence which, she says, she has found insufficiently treated in seventeen textbooks in general psychology. She means to answer taxonomically the diversity of interpretation after some forty years' study of the problem by a variety of investigators. Her discussion may have a special appeal because of its publication at a pregnant moment in the socio-legal struggle for and against integration in the lower public schools in Virginia. Psychologists, however, will be more concerned by the manner in which the researches are employed than by the justifiability of the conclusions.

Students of racial intelligence have already demonstrated and documented the many difficulties involved in systematic research in this area. Summarizing all the published research in racial differences should entail the evaluation of the problems that the original investigators faced. In this volume presentation of the results of the experiments—to the exclusion of the original experimenters' comments and conclusions—seems to have led to an avoiding of the scientist's responsibility. If there be generally recognized limitations to straightforward conclusions, then the summarizer-evaluator should counsel scientific caution.

Results should be distinguished from their meanings. The latter, in turn, demand that there should have been suitable selective criteria for the experimental comparisons, relentless care, and defensible value-judgments.

**I**N this area of research, there are many gaps which force the psychological researcher to question the legitimacy of his initial hypotheses. There can be seen a kind of bimodality of 'conclusions' among the investigators who have

sought to explain, and not simply to describe, certain types of results. Whether the researcher emerges an environmentalist or a hereditarian depends in large part upon how thoroughly he is aware of the probable gaps in his hypothetical structure and subsequent methods.

For example, in the Foreword, Henry E. Garrett extols the study of Negro-white differences in the United States despite the dubiety of hypotheses which do not take adequate account of environmental inequalities and mixed ancestry. To these limitations *The Testing of Negro Intelligence* gives little attention.

If racially mixed ancestry precludes determining how 'Negro' a Negro is, or how 'white' a white, of what scientific value is it to assume that "the American Negro constitutes a recognizable and clearly defined group, the criterion of membership in which group being that of more-or-less African ancestry"? If the environments of the groups referred to in the various studies were improperly or unsatisfactorily equated, of what scientific value was it to speak as if they were?

The volume may, therefore, be described as a study of testing and intelligence. It may not be considered as a study of race. Its treatment of the effect on prediction of considerable and varying degrees of overlapping seems to have resulted from too heavy a dependence upon the significance of mean differences. Assuming all other elements in the compositions of the various experiments originally reported to have been controlled satisfactorily, this oversight would, singly, vitiate any broad generalization of a difference between the two groups.

In a sense, nevertheless, *The Testing of Negro Intelligence* is timely. It is timely because it is a study in the areas of untested assumptions, a demonstration of the need for interdisciplinary insights in research design, and an exhibit of the futility of confusing summaries of data with the critical evaluation of what the data are supposed to represent.



## Now is More Equal than Then

Marianne Frankenhäuser

*Estimation of Time: An Experimental Study.* Stockholm: Almqvist & Wiksell, 1959. Pp. 135. Sw. kr. 16.-.

Reviewed by MARIANNE L. SIMMEL

who is at present engaged in research at Brandeis University and the Massachusetts General Hospital and who was for a good many years in charge of the Psychological Laboratory at Illinois State Psychopathic Institute, where her research was especially concerned with brain surgery and phantom limbs. One of her chief interests there was the estimation of time after certain kinds of brain surgery.

**H**ERE is a series of studies to gladden the heart of any reader who has been concerned with the troublesome topic of the estimation of time. Basic to the design of these experiments is the distinction between perception of a temporal interval and its retention in memory. Perceived "present time" is operationally limited to one-second intervals, such as are implied in actions performed at the rate of one-per-second (e.g., reading of randomized digits or tapping at the rate of 1/sec.). Retained "past time" constitutes the retrospective estimate of the time period occupied by such one-per-second activity. The author addresses herself to the relationship between these two types of time estimation, and to the influence of several experimental variables on one or both of them.

Among her important findings are the following:

(1) Subjects (medical students and technicians) perform at the 1/sec. rate with great accuracy, with mean errors rarely exceeding 10% of the objective interval. The direction of the error is a fairly systematic function of the experimental variables.

(2) Retrospective estimates of 'past time' are consistently smaller than the



sum of the successive one-second estimates on which they are based. For intervals above twenty seconds the loss is generally in the neighborhood of 25% to 30%. It is smaller for shorter intervals and, with administration of mild electric shocks, larger in some of the drug experiments and during nitrous oxide inhalation.

(3) There is a close correspondence between estimates of 'past time' and estimates of performance units (at speeds other than 1/sec.) during the estimated interval.

4. Estimates of both 'present time' and 'past time' are influenced by the "rate of flow of mental events," whether varied through the introduction of changes in alertness by cerebral stimulants and sedatives, by the presence or absence of background stimulation, by fast versus slow repetitive background stimulation, by dissimilar versus similar alternating tasks during the experiment or through the application of electric shock. In short, the more that is happening during a temporal interval, the longer it appears to the subject.

**T**HE design of the basic procedure which embodies simultaneously estimates of 'present time' as part of the one-per-second activity and estimates of 'past time' for the interval occupied by this activity may well be called elegant. The supplementary experiments are designed competently throughout, and some with more than ordinary imaginativeness. And who would not like to obtain results as neat and consistent as those here reported?

At the conceptual level, however, a basic question arises. Do these experiments really tell us about 'present time' versus 'past time' estimations? Or do they instead compare two different activities which also vary in time? Specifically, do they not compare a temporally controlled rhythmic activity with a retrospective verbal estimate of its duration? Phrased more crudely (and not altogether correctly): is this not really a comparison between (short) 'performance' and (longer) 'verbal' estimates? This reviewer finds herself unable to resolve this problem, or even to see clearly its implications. It simply bothers her. The seductiveness of the

material reported does not quite mask a small persistent, disembodied doubt.

My second criticism concerns the limitation of this and other recent studies to very small temporal intervals of the order of seconds rather than minutes or even hours. Admittedly longer intervals are harder for the experimenter. Yet, they can be managed fruitfully and

they extend the range of justifiable generalizations.

The author is research psychologist at the Laboratory of Aviation and Naval Medicine at the Karolinska Institute in Stockholm. In this unpretentious little monograph she demonstrates real craftsmanship.

## Religion's Outsides and Insides

Michael Argyle

*Religious Behaviour.* Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1959. Pp. xii + 196. \$5.00.

Paul E. Johnson

*Psychology of Religion.* (Rev. ed.) Nashville, Tenn.: Abingdon Press, 1959. Pp. 304. \$5.00.

Reviewed by JAMES E. DITTES

*Dr. Dittes, with a Yale BD and a Yale PhD in psychology, is Assistant Professor of Psychology at Yale with an abiding interest in the understanding of religious experience. For CP he reviewed Walter Clark's The Psychology of Religion (Macmillan, 1958; CP, Oct. 1958, 3, 289-291). Just now he is interesting himself in the psychology of the minister.*

**A**FTER a thirty-year latency, the psychology of religion has suddenly produced four important books in rapid succession. A year before the pair reviewed here, Walter H. Clark's text surveyed, far more ably than anything previously available, the field which had shown most of its vitality between E. D. Starbuck and William James at the beginning of the century, and J. B. Pratt in 1920. More recently Orlo Strunk, Jr. has compiled a set of readings drawn almost entirely from those early vigorous decades. Between the 1920s and Clark there was no important work except perhaps Johnson's much slimmer first edition in 1945 and some relatively casual statements on religion by psychologists whose primary interest was elsewhere.

The revival may be understood on

several grounds. There has been a decline in preoccupation of the seminaries with psychology as nothing more than a healing art. There are twin trends in Protestant theology; one existentialist (e.g., Paul Tillich) which welcomes psychological investigation, the other a new orthodoxy (e.g., Karl Barth) which is so securely aloof from mere psychological affairs of man that psychologists are left free to poke around where they like, unchecked. And there is increasingly refined help available from general psychology on matters most pertinent to religion, such as the relation between affective and cognitive processes, socialization and transmission of values, processes for reduction of guilt and anxiety and for coping with frustration and deprivation, identity and roles, self-esteem and social acceptance.

If the books by Argyle and Johnson, however, announce a revival of the field, it is clear that the first task is to decide what we are studying. What is religion? What are the useful categories? What Argyle and Johnson write about under the same label could hardly be more different.

**A**T one extreme is Argyle, an Oxford University social psychologist who has



visited the U. S. A. at the University of Michigan and later at the Center for Advanced Studies in Behavioral Sciences. He regards religion as a single, undifferentiated entity, varying along a single dimension. You ask, "Is there more or less religion?" And you measure it with any of the overt bits of behavior which culture has regarded as religious. Frequency of church attendance is the easiest to use, but you may freely substitute other indices interchangeably, such as church membership, reported frequency of private prayer, and orthodoxy of belief. Argyle has compiled an impressive array of evidence on the correlation of religion, so defined, and such variables as age, sex, social class, marital status, ethnocentrism, and intelligence.

Such a view of religion as a single variable tempts one to explain it with a single 'cause.' In a final chapter, Argyle considers half a dozen such theories and undertakes with impressive ingenuity to make his data speak *yes* or *no* to each of the theories. Is religion a response to frustration? If so, then religious activity should be greater among the aged and ill, among unmarried and widows, in times of economic depression, among lower social classes, and so on. He follows a similar pattern of analysis for theories concerning intrapsychic conflict, projected father image, obsessional neurosis, cognitive need, and physiological needs.

Now it is only the crudest and most polemic of theories that have regarded religion as a single thing. Almost everyone recognizes that different phenomena, like belief systems, ritual, mysticism, are discrete and probably serve discrete functions. Moreover, it is necessary to distinguish among the functions of different belief systems, different rituals, etc. Perhaps the most important distinction is that to which Clark has given the label *primary* and *secondary* religion. This is the difference between the overt forms, that is, the religious behavior which Argyle measures, and the more basic orientation of personality with which most psychological thinkers, including even those whose theories Argyle claims to be testing, are concerned. Clark has recently protested vigorously that primary and secondary

religion are uncorrelated. Most religious prophets have urged even more vigorously that the relation is often negative. There are some hints, as in data relating prejudice to church attendance, that the correlation is curvilinear—that many non-attenders and faithful attenders may resemble each other more than either resembles the moderate attenders.

To justify his use of measures as interchangeable, Argyle offers a single sentence summary of an unpublished factor analysis, "finding that all were correlated together" (p. 9). He does not recognize any problem in the validity of using an index like church attendance to measure religion. He does, however, pay passing attention to the parallel strain of using broad social categories as indices of psychological variables, of assuming, for example, that widowhood, old age, lower social class, and periods of economic depression are decisive indices of psychological frustration. On this side of his equation, Argyle issues mild warnings of tentativeness but not on the religion side.

Religious behavior should, indeed, be studied, but it can be more fruitfully interpreted in relation to the laws of social behavior and institutional affiliation in general. Religion itself, as it has concerned most psychological thinkers, is hardly to be illuminated by this Kinsey-like approach.

JOHNSON has little interest in secondary religion by itself. "In the name of religion, what deed has not been done? For the sake of religion, men have earnestly affirmed and contradicted almost every idea and form of conduct" (p. 47). Religion concerns the fundamental human aspirations and apprehensions. The behavior they generate may be that which is conventionally called religion or it may not; in either case it is of concern to the psychologist of religion. Psychology of religion thus becomes virtually indistinguishable from personality and social psychology in general, except that it is committed not to sidestep the most difficult issues in understanding the central processes of human functioning.

Johnson chooses to focus his attention on interpersonal relations as the

key and to regard religion as a restless, fumbling, but relentless search for the "answering response" of a Thou. The helpless outcry of the infant becomes a prototype of the religious quest. "No other need is so persistent as the need to relate, and no other activity is so important . . . as the dialogue with a responsive person" (p. 133). Into this general frame, he fits with convincing coherence most of the traditional topics of the psychology of religion, including conversion and religious growth, "religious community," guilt and forgiveness, and prayer and worship.

The psychology of religion thus becomes in large measure a psychology of intimate interpersonal relations and of such fruits of these relations as feelings of unworthiness, anxiety, identity, trust. This is, however, more than the psychology of affiliation, for religion involves the ongoing search for a personal relationship without the limitations and ambivalences of any existing relationship. Whether or not this search carries one into projection and illusion, Johnson does not explicitly say. For the purpose of his analysis, it makes no difference. He writes as though he believes that reality offers us what is in essence an unconditionally supporting personal relationship. There is no stifling orthodoxy, however. Johnson calmly lays claim to the heart and depth of religious experience as a legitimate object for psychological investigation.

Such an approach to the psychology of religion would seem to incur an obligation to canvass related fields of 'secular' psychology. Johnson, however, has appropriated materials from available resources only incidentally. He seems deliberately to have ignored psychologists and to have preferred the language of J. L. Moreno and Martin Buber with which to phrase his interpersonal theory of religion. Generally he appeals for evidence not to research but to the readers' own experience; he is writing primarily for the practitioner, not the psychologist. To this end he writes effectively and persuasively.

One can sympathize with Johnson's reluctance to take on the weighty task of compiling and baptizing diverse but related areas of psychology. Let him

who has tried it cast the first stone. Nevertheless one may regret the deficiency, for this discussion only scratches the surface which research on affiliation and dependence, small groups and large groups, parent-child and therapist-patient relations, and many like problems has gotten beneath, each in its own way.

Throughout, the book indicates that its author in his own mind is working with the broad outlines of current theories of personality, of psychotherapy and counseling, and of group processes—as indeed he has demonstrated in his other books and by his distinguished career as Professor of Counseling and Pastoral Psychology at the Boston University School of Theology. He puts down many arresting, provocative sentences, which suggest fruitful insights to any student of personality or social psychology. For the most part, however, these ideas are not developed nor made explicit in the terms that would make them most accessible to the research-oriented, theory-constructing reader.

There is a soft quality to the tone of much of the book, one consistent with its appeal to practitioners and with its being virtually adrift from its moorings in psychological science. Prescription and even homily intrude frequently into the discussion, and throughout the picture of religion tends to be idealized and optimistic. The author pays little heed, for example, to the fact that the desperate search for an approving Thou may result in severe self-imposed rules as part of the effort to please the Thou, an effort that may result in constriction and conflict.

Nevertheless, the book does good service for both the practitioner and the psychologist of religion in shaking thought free of much of the conventional concern with the overt phenomena of secondary religion and phenotypical categories and in beginning the search in the wider reaches of psychology for those genotypes that may illuminate primary religion. Though it may not prove an authoritative guide book in the realm of religion, it is a warmly sympathetic account by one who obviously feels at home there and has reflected thoughtfully on what he has seen.



## Rorschachs in Childhood and Adolescence

Louise Bates Ames, Ruth W. Métraux, and Richard N. Walker

*Adolescent Rorschach Responses: Development Trends from Ten to Sixteen Years.* New York: Paul B. Hoeber, 1959. Pp. xiv + 313. \$8.50.

Nettie H. Ledwith

*Rorschach Responses of Elementary School Children: A Normative Study.* Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1959. Pp. xii + 185. \$4.00.

Reviewed by IRWIN J. KNOPF

*Dr. Knopf is Chief of the Division of Psychology in Psychiatry in the University of Texas' Southwestern Medical School in Dallas. He is a Diplomat in Clinical Psychology and has been busy training clinical psychologists and medical students for the past eight years. He is a believer in experimental and physiological psychology, having been exposed during his PhD-getting days to D. B. Lindsley, T. W. Richards, and W. A. Hunt at Northwestern University.*

FOLLOWING the posthumous publication of Hermann Rorschach's *Psychodiagnostics* and the historic introduction of what is now the most widely used projective technique, clinicians relied heavily on Rorschach's preliminary data, their own experience, and the anecdotal reports of co-workers as the basis for their interpretations. The beginning empirical approach that so cautiously fathered the Rorschach test was, for some years, lost and overshadowed by the more immediate interest in exploiting the potential effectiveness of the instrument in clinical practice. In recent years, the pendulum has swung back to empiricism and a recognition of the necessity for establishing adequate normative data. This change has been particularly apparent in the children's area where the dearth of norms has been striking, and where clinical experience has been considerably more limited than with adult populations. The two books

that are being reviewed represent two different approaches to this problem, one essentially cross-sectional and the other longitudinal, and as such both will be welcomed by Rorschachers young and old as significant additions to the literature.

THE Ames-Métraux-Walker book is the third volume on Rorschach responses compiled by these prolific research psychologists from the Gesell Institute of Child Development. The first publication in 1952 dealt with the Rorschach performance of children between the ages of 2 and 10 years, while the second was concerned with the Rorschach responses of adults from 70 to 100 years old. Thus, in the short span of 2 years the authors went from the beginning to the end of the line with Rorschach norms and implicitly, at least, served notice that more was to come. This latest volume is a continuation of their first in that it describes the development of various aspects of Rorschach performance of a large sample of children from 10 to 16 years. It is a report of a study designed to determine developmental trends that are associated with age and sex differences, and to provide normative data on children's Rorschach responses at successive years for this 7-year period.

The first part of the book carefully describes the subjects, method, and statistical analysis used in the study, and

also presents the results in regard to such familiar Rorschach variables as location, determinants, and content. Part II contains seven chapters each devoted to an age group. A statistically "average or typical" Rorschach summary is presented for each age, and these data are compared with those of other age groups and are principally discussed in terms of developmental trends. The final section contains a chapter on the longitudinal development of Rorschach performance to illustrate the similarity between these and cross-sectional findings. There is a chapter devoted to a discussion of sex differences, and two final chapters devoted to a discussion and summary of all of the findings in terms of developmental trends.

In general the major contribution of this book lies in its practical value to clinicians as a source of reference on the normative and developmental aspects of children's Rorschach responses. The reader is given sufficient information about the procedural details and the outline of the study to permit replication, comparisons, and a more precise understanding of the interpretative limits of the results. Data on Rorschach variables are adequately presented in tabular form reflecting changes from age to age, as well as the over-all direction of change for the 7-year period. The developmental findings as evidenced in these over-all trends gives the reader a valuable perspective from which to view and interpret the Rorschach performance of children in the clinical situation. Such findings as the trend toward a slow increase in the number of responses with age, a decrease in  $W\%$ , an increase in  $D\%$ , no change in  $Dd\%$ , a slight decrease in  $F\%$  with essentially no change in  $F+\%$ , a slight upward trend for  $M$ , and an increase in the use of controlled color responses as manifested in the increase of  $FC$  will be valuable guideposts for inexperienced and experienced Rorschachers alike. Sex differences in the years 10 to 16 in Rorschach responses are found to be relatively consistent and striking.

Nevertheless, some limitations of the study tend to restrict its practical value and the extent to which its findings are generalizable. The work is based on 700 Rorschach records; those of 50 girls and

50 boys at each successive age. Many children, however, contributed records at more than one age, and only 271 children contributed single records. This distribution, in effect, resulted in 33 to 50 per cent overlap of subjects between adjacent ages and, consequently, confounded cross-sectional and longitudinal data in the statistical analysis of the results. Moreover the sample of subjects was not representative. The subjects were of predominantly above-average intelligence, and mostly (over 75%) from upper middle-class home backgrounds. It is likely that the reader will not be convinced by the authors' attempt at illustrating the similarity between the cross-sectional and longitudinal findings because these conclusions rest heavily on data from one pair of fraternal twins tested at yearly intervals for the 7-year period. Finally, readers who expect to see these latest findings discussed in light of the available data and integrated into the existing Rorschach literature will be greatly disappointed. The authors make some attempt to review the literature in the second chapter of their book, but this good start must be regarded merely as a token; from this point on reference to the relevant work of others is noticeably absent.

**T**HE second book by Dr. Ledwith is a report of a longitudinal study essentially based on 828 Rorschach protocols obtained from 138 children tested at each successive year from ages 6 to 11. The study began in 1946 when few clinicians had enough experience or normative data to administer the Rorschach confidently to emotionally disturbed children. The author is a practicing clinician of long standing, and for the last 17 years has been the chief psychologist at the Pittsburgh Child Guidance Center. The strength of her conviction in the study of the Rorschachs of normal children as a primary step to the use of the test with children in the clinical situation is clearly reflected in the continuance of the study for 13 years and undoubtedly provided the motivation necessary for it. In the reviewer's opinion, the fruits of this labor were well worth waiting for.

The study is succinctly presented in a direct, clear, and interesting style and

the reader will especially appreciate the accessibility of the data in the many tables appropriately spotted throughout the text and collectively listed in the appendices. The author exercised unusual care in the selection of the subjects in order to obtain a sample representative of normal urban children from Pittsburgh and Allegheny counties in terms of the distribution of such characteristics as socioeconomic level, race, religion, sex, and intelligence. In addition to the large longitudinal group of subjects, two smaller control groups, one at age 7 and one at age 11, were included in the study to determine the effect of repeated testing on the various Rorschach scoring categories. While the necessity for the inclusion of the control groups is demonstrated by the results, the extent to which practice affects Rorschach variables would have been determined more clearly if a control group had been used at each successive age.

A chapter on the comparison of the present results with the norms available for adults gives the reader a good picture of the general developmental tendency of children increasingly to approach adult Rorschach performance with increasing age, as well as highlighting the differences between the norms for children and those of adults. The author elects, however, not to compare her normative data with those derived from other children's studies because such comparisons "are fraught with difficulties, due to the sampling and scoring differences among the various investigations." As a matter of fact, the major deficiency of this book—which is largely intended for the inexperienced Rorschach student—is the absence of a bibliography and interstudy comparisons. In spite of this limitation, the over-all care exercised in the conduct of the study, the representative nature of the sample, and the clear and uncluttered presentation of the normative findings should make this volume an important basic reference for all Rorschachers working within the children's area.



*To be occasionally quoted is the only fame I care for.*

—ALEXANDER SMITH

# A Developmental Lab Course

J. Richard Suchman

*Observation and Analysis in Child Development: A Laboratory Manual.* New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1959. Pp. x + 276. \$2.95.

Reviewed by PAUL MUSSEN

who is Associate Professor of Psychology and Research Associate in the Institute of Human Development in the Berkeley area of the University of California. He is a clinical and social psychologist who stems from Stanford and Yale, especially concerned with the development of personality and just now with parent-child relations. With John Conger he has published a text on Child Development and Personality (*Harper*) and he has just finished editing the Handbook of Research Methods in Child Development which Wiley will publish at the instance of the National Academy of Sciences—National Research Council.

IN courses in child psychology and child development, assignments requiring observations of children and analysis of the data can serve several pedagogical purposes. These activities should heighten the student's interest in the subject matter discussed in lectures and textbooks and facilitate his comprehension of seemingly abstract theories and principles of development. J. Richard Suchman, a Cornell-trained Assistant Professor of Education of the University of Illinois, has prepared a manual which many instructors will find useful as a source of assignments that offer the student *in vivo* contacts with children and opportunities to handle actual data in the field of child development.

Although it is subtitled *A Laboratory Manual*, the book might more accurately be labelled *A Workbook*, since none of the exercises make use of laboratory settings, equipment, or experimental manipulations of variables. It consists of 61 exercises, grouped into

16 chapters and covering a very wide range of topics, chiefly, though not exclusively, concerned with problems of socialization, such as the effects of early experiences and interpersonal relations in the school and in the family. All the exercises include analysis, organization, and interpretation of data, and, in all but 17 of them, the student collects the data himself, using the methods of observation, interview, or questionnaire. A series of excellent, thought-provoking questions accompanies each exercise, and in some cases, supplementary reading assignments are suggested.

SOME of the most ingenious and stimulating exercises in the manual, strangely enough, do not involve direct contact with children. For these exercises, representative data from several important areas of child study are incorporated in the manual. Such are measures of physical growth, quotations from popular literature on child-rearing taken from different eras, ethnographic reports on child-rearing practices in different cultures, descriptions of family climates, longitudinal records of social-emotional responses of infants, and accounts of the behavior of institutional children. The student may be vaguely aware that these are relevant areas of investigation, but his understanding of them is likely to be quite superficial. These samples of raw data, together with the author's thoughtful suggestions for analyzing them, bring the subjects to life, and, at the same time, demonstrate their central importance in the study of development.

Many of the exercises are based essentially on 'free' observation in natural settings. The selections of "observation sites" are excellent in the sense that they permit a broad sampling of children's behavior. There is a major defect in these exercises, however: observations are carried out in a relatively unsystematic way and with insufficient guidance. In my experience, beginning students derive more from observations if they are properly 'sensitized' to psychologically pertinent responses and if they are given detailed procedural instructions, including checklists of behavior items. Furthermore, in the early stages of their training, students need

to be taught to differentiate carefully between observed behavior and interpretation. Most of the instructions in the manual, however, are vague and general. For example, in observing the socializing functions of a teacher, the student is instructed to

Observe a teacher at work with a class for an hour or two. Carefully record his behavior and analyze it in terms of the various functions he performs as a socializing agent.

... describe the teacher's behavior in as much detail as possible, noting not only his overt actions and what he says, but also his facial expressions and vocal inflections, and the mood or feeling he creates in the room. Does he seem hurried, anxious, impatient, irritable, calm, deliberate, cheerful, or aloof? (p. 159).

The exercises using questionnaires and interviews are vulnerable to the same kinds of criticism. These techniques are complex and subtle, and considerable skill and experience are required to design and use them properly. While these skills can not be learned from a manual, the inclusion of some elementary structuring principles would undoubtedly deepen the student's understanding of them and make the exercises more meaningful.

Several significant areas and basic methods of child study are, unfortunately, almost completely neglected in this manual. For example, there are no exercises concerned with perception, rote learning, or social organization. The heavy emphasis on free observation, interview and questionnaire, gives a somewhat biased and restricted picture of the research tools of the field. A broader spectrum of investigatory techniques and a better balanced picture of major research areas could have been achieved by including exercises involving learning experiments, time-and-situation sampling of social and emotional responses, sociometric questionnaires, observations of guided doll-play, and projective techniques like those used by Lois Murphy. A more complete manual would accomplish even more successfully the author's purpose of helping to prepare students to "pursue their own investigations . . . and better appreciate the problems and achievements of other investigators."



## A Contemporary Statistics

Palmer O. Johnson and Robert W. B. Jackson

*Modern Statistical Methods: Descriptive and Inductive.* Chicago: Rand McNally, 1959. Pp. x + 514. \$8.00.

Reviewed by WILLIAM B. MICHAEL

*who is Director of the Testing Bureau of the University of Southern California and also Professor of Psychology and Education there. He has been connected with the California Institute of Technology, Princeton University, San José State College, and the RAND Corporation, always with something to do with mathematics, testing, and statistical methods and analysis.*

THE accelerating rate at which advances in both theoretical and applied statistics have been occurring during the past few years has made necessary the frequent writing by specialists in various scientific disciplines of comprehensive books in statistical methodology. Internationally esteemed for their contribution to cartography, Rand McNally and Company, as one of their first new ventures, have published a relatively advanced text in statistics by two eminent statisticians, Palmer O. Johnson and Robert W. B. Jackson, of the Universities of Minnesota and Toronto, respectively.

It has been the purpose of these two distinguished professors of education to write a book that is "designed to lead students in education, psychology, and the other social sciences from the beginnings of statistical methodology to an advanced level of instruction." Subsequent to an introductory chapter and a second one upon the familiar material of descriptive statistics, their primary emphasis within the next five chapters is upon the problem of tests of statistical hypotheses. In addition to one fairly comprehensive chapter of 64 pages upon analysis of variance, a shorter one of 27 pages about the more

## Emotion and Personality

### I. PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS

### II. NEUROLOGICAL AND PHYSIOLOGICAL ASPECTS

By Magda B. Arnold

A two-volume work on all aspects of emotion. In the first volume, Dr. Arnold considers the criteria of feeling and the various interpretations of feeling. Theories of emotion from Aristotle and St. Thomas Aquinas to Freud and the existentialists are analyzed and evaluated. In the second volume, Dr. Arnold shows that the phenomenological theory of emotion is supported by neurological and physiological evidence. She identifies the brain structures mediating the experience of emotion and, for the first time, discusses the pathways mediating the whole sequence from perception to memory, emotion, and action.

June 27      Illustrated      Two volumes      \$7.50 each

## The Psychology of Deafness

### TECHNIQUES OF APPRAISAL FOR REHABILITATION

By Edna Simon Levine

The psychological effects and implications of impaired hearing have long eluded the understanding of both science and society. The need for psychological appraisal of adults and children with impaired hearing is therefore more urgent than ever. In this book, the author considers in detail the psychological examination and evaluation of deaf and hard-of-hearing persons. She discusses examination procedures in terms of the four basic psychological approaches: case history, interview, observation, and psychological testing. Psychological tests and test batteries in current use with the deaf and hard of hearing are reviewed. A case history form and a psychological report form—both devised by the author—are included.

June 13      \$7.50

## Columbia University Press

2960 BROADWAY, NEW YORK 27

familiar nonparametric techniques, and another upon the problem of point and interval estimation, three chapters pertaining to correlational analysis are presented including one upon the classification and reduction of bivariate data, a parallel one upon multivariate data, and one concerning special applications of multivariate analysis. A highlight of the book is a very readable closing chapter on the design and analysis of statistical investigations, a chapter that serves to bring together and to interrelate the fundamental concepts developed throughout the preceding thirteen chapters.

Conspicuous by its absence is a consideration of factor analysis, an unfortunate omission. The topics of orthogonal polynomials, covariance analysis including the Johnson-Neyman method, and the discriminant and generalized distance function are treated—inclusions that undoubtedly reflect the interests and preferences of the writers. Two other limitations are that (1) only about three pages are devoted to errors of the first and second kind and to the concept of power and that (2) not enough of the various types of experimental designs are described in conjunction with the analysis of variance. There is no systematic exposition of the suitability of the application of statistical methods relative to the fundamental properties of measuring scales (such as nominal, ordinal, interval, or ratio). Along with the absence of a theory to unify statistical methods and measurement goes a slighting of the application of statistical methods to problems of test theory and item analysis.

To the reviewer the greatest weaknesses of the volume are pedagogical: (1) the extremely limited use of geometric or pictorial devices for communicating basic statistical ideas (not a single graph or diagram is used in the explanation of analysis of covariance); (2) the frequent introduction of terms or symbols not previously or adequately defined (e.g., the illustrative problems 11–14 in Chapter X that involve correlational statistics and parameters not yet considered in the text); (3) the absence of answers to the problem exercises; and (4) the in-

clusion of only four basic tables of statistical significance—a deficit that limits both the instructional and reference values of the volume. Without the aid of other books a student could hardly be led “from the beginnings of statistical methodology to an advanced level of instruction” as the authors hoped to do.

From a positive standpoint there are, on the other hand, many good features in this book. (1) There are a conscientious attempt to state in most instances the exact nature of the statistical hypothesis being tested, (2) a welcome (but not pedantic) degree of rigor in the treatment of fine points of statistical inference including painstaking documentation, and (3) a consequent freedom (so it seems) from any major technical errors. There is also (4) a refreshing degree of flexibility that goes

along with a practical recognition of the limitations of statistical models and concrete suggestions as to how problems in behavioral sciences can be handled when the fulfillment of certain assumptions in mathematical statistics is questionable. Finally the reviewer notes that the book contains (5) one of the most helpful discussions currently available in textbook literature as to how the appropriate error term in analysis of variance may be selected, notwithstanding the existence of a substantial difference in professional opinion as to the applicability of various types of models in analysis of variance. In spite of the weaknesses cited, the volume contributes much to him who already has had a considerable amount of exposure to statistics; it serves to keep him abreast of contemporary developments in statistical method.

## ON THE OTHER HAND



### DRUG ADDICTION AND CULTURAL RELATIVISM

Dr. Walters' letter (*CP*, Feb. 1960, 5, 61f.) missed the main point of my reply (*CP*, Oct. 1959, 4, 340f.) to Rosenthal's review of my book, *Drug Addiction: Physiological, Psychological and Sociological Aspects* (*CP*, June 1959, 4, 182f.). Dr. Rosenthal had asserted that I both regarded addicts as criminals and advocated a punitive approach to the treatment of drug addiction. In my reply I quoted seven statements from the book which demonstrated that I unequivocally repudiated such an approach.

It is certainly news to me that “a psychologist has no right ‘to make . . . value judgments . . . concerning drug addiction or any other social issue.’” In that case I guess I am guilty (along with most other psychologists) of condemning racial segregation in the schools, anti-Semitism, the suppression of civil liberties, genocide, etc.

Dr. Walters' brand of cultural relativism which precludes cross-cultural value judgments was archaic even forty years ago. Since that time we have seen the birth of the League of Nations, and the United Nations. Yes, these international bodies have “ethnocentrically” presumed to condemn,

outlaw, and suppress territorial aggression, genocide, violation of human rights on racial grounds (e.g., South Africa), and legalized drug addiction. If this is “assuming a god-like role” and “delivering ex-cathedra pronouncements,” I am in good company. The existence of culturally tolerated vices and anti-social practices in certain cultures (e.g., cocaineism in parts of South America, *Apartheid* in South Africa) does not justify a relativistic position about the morality of providing social sanction for drug addiction and racial discrimination in any part of the world.

It is also true that the *Dangerous Drugs Act* of 1920 in Great Britain parallels our Harrison Narcotic Act of 1914 in practically every respect. Irregular possession of narcotics as well as the medical administration of an opiate to an addict for the sole purpose of gratifying his desire for the drug are just as illegal in Great Britain as in the United States. Let Dr. Walters cite a single responsible American Indian leader who advocates or defends peyotism!

DAVID P. AUSUBEL  
University of Illinois

# Important Books in Psychoanalysis

**ROBERT WAELDER**

## BASIC THEORY OF PSYCHOANALYSIS

\$5.00

When one has a book on the basic theory of psychoanalysis, one expects to learn from it, but one does not anticipate to find it easy reading or a book that one cannot put down. The clarity of exposition, the broad range of the author's interests, the well-chosen and often amusing, though highly instructive, illustrations make this an eminently readable book which is indeed hard to put down.

Yet the topic is the scientific investigation of the fundamental assumptions and findings of psychoanalysis; their rationale, their implications, and the questions which they stimulate. Among these questions are:

"Can psychoanalytic interpretations and theories be verified in a scientifically satisfactory way? How must such verification proceed? What is instinct in psychoanalysis? What is the role of sexuality in psychoanalytic theory? Why do analysts speak of a destructive instinct? What does 'ego' mean in psychoanalysis? Why was ego psychology a relatively late addition in psychoanalytic theory? What is the nature of psychoanalytic therapy? Why is consciousness supposed to have a therapeutic value? What are the indications and limits of psychoanalytic therapy?"

It is a special feature of Dr. Waelder's book that he can successfully address himself to two audiences simultaneously, without disturbing either one and giving much to each: for the student and general reader, there is a solid, didactic presentation of analytic knowledge; and the expert will appreciate the many new points and perspectives contained in this volume.

This book certainly realizes the three goals which Dr. Waelder has explicitly set for himself: "to combat widespread misunderstanding of psychoanalysis and therefore to help conserve what we have inherited; to see psychoanalysis in its context in the history of civilization; and to help to discover the most promising avenues of advancement."

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"In this book Nunberg gives the most complete and accurate presentation we have at this time of a psychoanalytic theory of neurotic processes. Those who seek a simplification and a glossing over of the problems with which it deals will be disappointed in this book. Those, however, who prefer scientific thinking, who appreciate theoretical formulations which never abandon their ties to experience, those who can savor the rich diversity of psychic events—those persons will value and eagerly study this work."—*Sigmund Freud*

**INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITIES PRESS, INC.**

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# INSTRUCTIONAL MEDIA

Edited by A. A. Lumsdaine

## The Nature of Sex

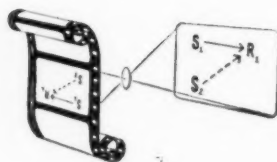
**Stimuli Releasing Sexual Behavior of Domestic Turkeys**, by Martin Schein and E. B. Hale. Silent, color, 18 minutes at sound speed. Psychological Cinema Register, Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pa. Rental \$5.75, Sale \$126.50.

Reviewed by WILLIAM ETKIN

Dr. Etkin, who recently reviewed *Roe and Simpson's Behavior and Evolution for CP* (Aug. 1959, 4, 225-8), is Professor of Biology at the College of the City of New York and Research Associate Professor in the Albert Einstein College of Medicine.

THIS film, made by two animal behaviorists who are obviously very conscious of the problems of a teacher, is in many ways a model for such teaching films. It begins by illustrating in detail the normal sequence of events in the courtship and mating behavior in a domestic strain of white turkeys. The experimental analysis is initiated with experiments illustrating the response of the receptive female to the various phases of male display and treading behavior. The actions of the male are satisfactorily imitated by the hand and finger actions of the experimenter, thus making it possible to expose the female responses completely. Head movements by the female and cloacal eversion in response to differing patterns of pressure are clearly seen. Termination of receptivity is shown to occur in the female only after extreme eversion of the oviduct.

The stimuli eliciting male behavior are analyzed by use of stuffed skins.



The orientation of the male to the head of the female is illustrated by dissociation of the head from the body at presentation (see photograph showing a male courting a head separated from the body). A striking sequence then shows the high degree of effectiveness of androgen injection in inducing male sex behavior in the three-week-old turkey. (Normally they do not breed until about one year old.)

The last pictures illustrate the practical use of this study in setting up a quantitative test for mating behavior in male turkeys. Altogether the ideas in the film are logically developed and are clearly illustrated in sufficient detail, using sufficient footage to make a very satisfying teaching experience. In use with undergraduate classes, I have found this to be one of the few films whose points can be satisfactorily grasped at a first showing.

A minor cavil may be raised about the use of white turkeys when the more colorful bronze might have been available. This difference is of some importance since the white stuffed specimen does not show enough differentiation of parts for its orientation to be apparent in all scenes.

Another difficulty is the slow pace of



Male turkey "courting" head of female

the film. The unduly long initial captions will doubtless be corrected in later prints. It should be explained, however, that the turkeys move very slowly and the appearance of the birds when the film is run at sound speed (as intended by the producers) is natural and not a technical distortion.

Nevertheless the film is, on the whole, extremely satisfactory for the clarity of presentation. In addition, it provides an excellent illustration of the point to which the ethologists have recently given so much prominence, namely, the simplicity and specificity of the stimuli that release instinctive behavior patterns in birds.

## Current Publications on Teaching Machines and Self-Instructional Materials

The following are reports which have appeared recently as additions to the fast-growing literature on self-instructional methods and devices.

William J. Carr. *Self-Instructional Devices: A Review of Current Concepts*. Aerospace Medical Laboratory, Wright Air Development Center, Wright-Patterson Air Force Base, Ohio, August 1959. WADC Technical Report 59-503. Available from the Office of Technical Services, U. S. Department of Commerce, Washington 25, D. C.

This 23-page report provides a selective review of the literature on self-instructional devices as a basis for an analysis of variables in devices, programs, and learners which are potentially related to the effectiveness of self-instruction. (This is one of a group of some forty-five papers which is being reprinted in a book of readings, *Teaching Machines and Programmed Learning: A Source Book*, edited by A. A. Lumsdaine and Robert Glaser for the National Education Association.)

Edward B. Fry, Glenn L. Bryan, and Joseph W. Rigney. *Teaching Machines: An Annotated Bibliography*.

This 100-page mimeographed report was prepared at the University of Southern California for the Personnel and Training Branch of the Office of Naval Research and is being reprinted in a current issue of the *Audio Visual*



*Communication Review*, published by the National Education Association. Tabular and graphic summaries are given of various categories of papers dealing with teaching-machine development, programs, theories, and experimental studies, in addition to abstracts of many published and unpublished papers in these categories.

*Automated Teaching Bulletin*. Published by the Rheem Califone Corporation, 1020 North LaBrea Avenue, Hollywood 38, California.

This quarterly publication, of which two issues have thus far appeared, contains miscellaneous current papers, abstracts, and brief notes of research projects which are currently underway in a number of universities and other institutions.

National Education Association. *What Do We Know About Teaching Modern Foreign Languages?* Special issue (Vol. 4, No. 6, September 1959) of *Audio-Visual Instruction*, the monthly periodical of the Department of Audio-Visual Instruction of NEA.

The pamphlet is devoted entirely to language teaching methods, with emphasis on 'language laboratory' instrumentation. Copies may be obtained from NEA for 50¢.

### Recent Films

The films listed below are of interest for potential use in various courses in psychology. Most of them can be either rented or purchased. Rental films are generally mailed prepaid by the distributing library; nominal return postage (5¢ to 9¢ for a ten-minute to 30-minute film, regardless of postal zone) to the film library, under current postal regulations, is ordinarily paid by the renter.

Some of these films will be reviewed either individually or along with similar films on related topics in forthcoming issues of *CP*. The TV kinescope included can be considered as sound films, there being no inherent difference between kinescope and other black and white sound films for most instructional purposes.

For convenience the following abbreviations will be used in future issues

of *Instructional Media* to indicate major film sources for psychological films:

PCR—Psychological Cinema Register  
Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Penna.

McGH—McGraw-Hill Text Films  
330 West 42nd St., New York 36, N. Y.

NYU—New York University Film Library

26 Washington Place, New York 3, N. Y.

NFBC—National Film Board of Canada  
680 Fifth Avenue, New York 19, N. Y.

IFB—International Film Bureau

57 East Jackson Boulevard, Chicago 4, Illinois

In some cases rental sources differ from purchase sources. For example, PCR is the single source with by far the largest available list of psychological films; however, of some 500 films which PCR has available for rental, only approximately 20% can also be purchased from PCR. Many of the remainder, however, are purchasable from sources listed in the PCR catalog. A copy of the PCR catalog can be obtained on request by a college or university department of psychology. This copy should be made available by the department to all teachers of courses in psychology in which films are of potential usefulness, even though a considerable number of useful films are available only from other sources. Catalogs from the other distributors listed above will also generally be sent on request.

*Facts About Film* (second edition). IFB. Sound, color, 12½ minutes. Sale price, \$125.00.

*Facts About Projection* (second edition). IFB (use and care of 16 mm. films and projectors). Color, sound, 16½ minutes. Sale price, \$165.00.

*There Was a Door*. Contemporary Films Incorporated. 265 W. 125 Street, New York 1, N. Y. Sound, black and white, 30 minutes. Sale price, \$145.00; rental, \$7.50. (This British film deals with care and treatment of the mentally retarded in Great Britain.)

*Into the Sunlight*. 28 minutes, sound, black and white. A TV kinescope on mental retardation produced by The Training School at Vineland, New Jersey, and available on loan free of charge.

*Starting Nursery School: Patterns of Beginning*. NYU. Sound, black and white, 23 minutes. Sale price, \$120.00; rental, \$6.50.

*A Two-Year-Old Goes to School*. NYU. Sound, 50 minutes. Sale price, \$150.00; rental, \$10.00 a day. This film was produced at the Tavistock Clinic, London, and presents a record of a child's hospital behavior under various conditions.

*Support During Labor*. Sound, color, 20 minutes. Available from Department of Obstetrics and Gynecology, University Medical Center, Jackson 6, Mississippi.

*Rock-a-Bye Baby: A Group Projective Test for Children*. M. R. Haworth and A. G. Woltman. PCR. Sound, 35 minutes. Sale price, \$157.00; rental, \$10.00.

*Behavior of Animals and Human Infants in Response to a Visual Cliff*. R. D. Walk and E. J. Gibson. PCR. A comparative study of depth discrimination of animals and human infants. Sound, 15 minutes. Sale price, \$73.50; rental, \$3.50.

*Understanding Human Behavior*. Bernard Glueck, University of Minnesota. 13 films (kinescopes of a TV program), 16-mm, black and white, 30 min. each, 1959. These TV kinescopes are available from the Audio-Visual Extensions Service, General Extension Division, University of Minnesota, 115-121 TSMA, Minneapolis 14, Minnesota. Rental, \$50.00 for the whole series; \$5.25 plus postage for each individual film.

The series comprises

*Mind, Unconscious Mind, and Brain*  
*Non-reporting Mental Activity*  
*Hedonic Control of Behavior*  
*The Emergency Emotions*  
*Pleasurable Emotional Responses*  
*Behavioral Research*  
*Infantile Dependency, Magical Thinking and Omnipotence*  
*Development of Self-concept*  
*The Action Self and the Idealized Self*  
*Development of Controls*  
*Sexual Behavior in Infancy*  
*Adolescent and Adult Sexual Behavior*  
*The Cause and Significance of Dreams*



*Even mistaken hypotheses and theories are of use in leading to discoveries. This remark is true in all the sciences. The alchemists founded chemistry by pursuing chimerical problems and theories which are false.*

—CLAUDE BERNARD

## BOOKS RECEIVED

- BAKER, L. M. *General experimental psychology: an introduction to principles*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1960. Pp. xiv + 420. \$6.00.
- BELL, DANIEL. *The end of ideology: on the exhaustion of political ideas in the fifties*. Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1960. Pp. 416. \$7.50.
- BEER, STAFFORD. *Cybernetics and management*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1960. Pp. xviii + 214. \$4.50.
- BERKOWITZ, PEARL H., & ESTHER P. ROTHMAN. *The disturbed child: recognition and psychoeducational therapy in the classroom*. New York: New York University Press, 1960. Pp. x + 204. \$4.00.
- BOWERS, W. F. *Interpersonal relationships in the hospital*. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C Thomas, 1960. Pp. viii + 125. \$5.00.
- BRADLEY, P. B., P. DENIKER, & C. RADOUCCO-THOMAS (Eds.). *Neuro-psychopharmacology*. (Proceedings of the First International Congress of Neuro-Psychopharmacology, Rome, Sept. 1958.) Amsterdam: Elsevier Publishing Co., 1959 (distributed by D. Van Nostrand, Princeton, N. J.). Pp. xvi + 727. \$27.00.
- BREDEMEIER, H. C., & JACKSON TOBY. *Social problems in America: costs and casualties in an acquisitive society*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1960. Pp. xvi + 510. \$6.75.
- CALDER-MARSHALL, ARTHUR. *The sage of sex: a life of Havelock Ellis*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1960. Pp. 292. \$5.00.
- CLARK, W. E. LE GROS. *The antecedents of man: an introduction to the evolution of the primates*. Chicago: Quadrangle Books, 1960. Pp. x + 374. \$6.00.
- CUMINGS, J. N., & MICHAEL KREMER (Eds.). *Biochemical aspects of neurological disorders*. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C Thomas, 1960. Pp. x + 230. \$8.75.
- CURTIS, J. H. *Social psychology*. McGraw-Hill, 1960. Pp. x + 435. \$7.50.
- DAHL, R. A., MASON HAIRE, & P. C. LAZARSFELD. *Social science research on business: product and potential*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1960. Pp. xii + 185. \$3.00.
- DAVID, H. P., & J. C. BRENGELMANN (Eds.). *Perspectives in personality research*. New York: Springer Publishing Co., 1960. Pp. 363. \$7.50.
- DENBER, H. C. B. (Ed.). *Research conference on therapeutic community*. (Held at Manhattan State Hospital, Ward's Island, N. Y., 13-15 March 1959.) Springfield, Ill.: Charles C Thomas, 1960. Pp. xvi + 265. \$11.00.
- DOTY, R. S. *The character dimension of camping*. New York: Association Press, 1960. Pp. 192. \$4.75.
- DUNHAM, H. W., & S. K. WEINBERG. *The culture of the state mental hospital*. Detroit: Wayne State University Press, 1960. Pp. xxiv + 284. \$5.00.
- EDUCATIONAL RECORDS BUREAU. *1959 Fall testing program in independent schools and supplementary studies*. (Educational Records Bulletin No. 76.) New York: Educational Records Bureau, 1960. Pp. xii + 68.
- ELLIS, ALBERT. *The art and science of love*. New York: Lyle Stuart, 1960. Pp. 400. \$7.95.
- FARBER, BERNARD. *Family organization and crisis: maintenance of integration in families with a severely mentally retarded child*. (Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, Vol. 25, No. 1, Serial No. 75.) Lafayette, Ind.: Child Development Publications, Purdue University, 1960. Pp. 95. \$2.75.
- FARQUHAR, W. W., J. D. KRUMBOLTZ, & C. G. WRENN. *Learning to study*. New York: Ronald Press, 1960. Pp. vii + 243. \$2.25.
- FREUD, ANNA. *The psycho-analytical treatment of children*. (Parts I and II trans. from the German by Nancy Proctor-Gregg.) New York: International Universities Press, 1960. Pp. xii + 98. \$2.50.
- GALDSTON, IAGO. *Medicine and the other disciplines*. (Lectures to the Laity, Nos. XIX/XX.) New York: International Universities Press, 1960. Pp. 192. \$3.00.
- HARTLEY, E. L., & G. D. WIEBE. *Casebook in social processes*. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell, 1960. Pp. x + 534. \$3.75.
- HEIDER, FRITZ. *On perception and event structure, and the psychological environment: selected papers*. (Psychological Issues, Vol. I, No. 3, Monograph 3.) New York: International Universities Press, 1959. Pp. xii + 123. \$3.00.
- HINSIE, L. E., & R. J. CAMPBELL. *Psychiatric dictionary*. (3rd ed.) New York: Oxford University Press, 1960. Pp. x + 788. \$17.50.
- LEVITT, MORTON. *Freud and Dewey on the nature of man*. New York: Philosophical Library, 1960. Pp. 180. \$3.75.
- LICHTENBERG, PHILIP, ROBERT KOHRMAN, & HELEN MACGREGOR. *Motivation for child psychiatry treatment*. New York: Russell & Russell, 1960. Pp. xii + 220. \$5.00.
- MARTI-IBÁÑEZ, FELIX (Ed. & trans.). *Henry E. Sigerist on the history of medicine*. New York: MD Publications, 1960. Pp. xviii + 313. \$6.75.
- MILLER, G. A., EUGENE GALANTER, & K. H. PRIMBRAM. *Plans and the structure of behavior*. New York: Henry Holt, 1960. Pp. xii + 226. \$5.00.
- MITCHELL, ALAN. *The healing trance: a doctor's story of hypnosis*. New York: A. S. Barnes, 1960. Pp. 248. \$3.95.
- NATCHEZ, GLADYS. *Personality patterns and oral reading: a study of overt behavior in the reading situation as it reveals reactions of dependence, aggression, and withdrawal in children*. New York: New York University Press, 1959. Pp. xii + 98. \$2.50.
- NATIONAL PHYSICAL LABORATORY. *Mechanization of thought processes*. 2 vols. (Proceedings of a Symposium held at the National Physical Laboratory, 24-27 Nov. 1958.) London: Her Majesty's Stationery Office, 1959 (distributed by British Information Services, New York). Pp. x + 531; 532-980. \$9.29.
- OLYANOVA, NADYA. *The psychology of handwriting*. New York: Sterling Publishing Co., 1960. Pp. 224. \$3.50.
- ROKEACH, MILTON. *The open and closed mind: investigations into the nature of belief systems and personality systems*. New York: Basic Books, 1960. Pp. xvi + 447. \$7.50.
- RUBEN, MARGARETE. *Parent guidance in the nursery school*. New York: International Universities Press, 1960. Pp. 72. \$2.00.
- SCHMIDT, J. E. *Libido*. Springfield, Ill.: Charles C Thomas, 1960. Pp. viii + 278.
- SCHUBERT, G. A. *Quantitative analysis of judicial behavior*. Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1960. Pp. xx + 392.
- SLOTKIN, J. S. *From field to factory: new industrial employees*. Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1960. Pp. 156. \$4.00.
- SOCIÉTÉ FRANÇAISE DE PSYCHANALYSE. *La psychanalyse*. Vol. 5: *Essais critiques*. Paris: Presses Universitaires de France, 1959. Pp. 334. 1500 fr.
- SPURLING, R. G. *Practical neurological diagnosis: with special reference to the problems of neurosurgery*. (6th ed.) Springfield, Ill.: Charles C Thomas, 1960. Pp. xviii + 284.
- TUMIN, M. M. *Supplement: Segregation and desegregation, a digest of recent research, 1956-1959*. New York: Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith, 1960. Pp. 32.
- WATTS, A. W. *Nature, man, and woman*. New York: New American Library, 1960 (first published 1958 by Pantheon Books). Pp. 176. \$5.00.
- WEINBERG, S. K. *Social problems in our time: a sociological analysis*. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1960. Pp. viii + 600. \$6.75.

# RESEARCH IN PSYCHOTHERAPY

Proceedings of an interdisciplinary conference, Washington, D. C., April 9-12, 1958

ELI A. RUBINSTEIN and MORRIS B. PARLOFF, *Editors*

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Presentations and discussions by leading investigators in psychotherapy research, both psychologists and psychiatrists, combine to produce a critical evaluation of research objectives and methodologies

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